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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 20, 1905.

The Week.

The flow of post-prandial oratory in honor of Thomas Jefferson on Thursday night suggests the need of a society to protect the original Democrat from his disciples. It is true that the great Virginian's life was so capacious that a precedent for almost any view may be drawn out of that bag. But Democratic opportunist, hesitant expansionist, educator, philologist, inventor, architect, as Jefferson was, the wide mantle of his opinions and activities surely failed to stretch from New York to Chicago at the anniversary dinner. Judge Parker and Judge Herrick cited him as an apostle of equal rights and *laissez-faire;* Mayor Dunne and Mr. Bryan claimed him as the original anti-monopolist, and the prophet of paternalistic control of accumulated wealth, of all means of transportation and communication. All this was developed by the exponents of the Chicago idea quite in the ingenious vein of Mr. Stead's famous pamphlet, 'If Christ Should Come to Chicago.' It only needed Mr. Jerome's characteristic dictum that "Jefferson was a faker" to complete the motley aspect of the commemoration. Of course, the attempt to make Jefferson at once the great individualist and the great socialist is pretty clear evidence of the hesitation in which the Democratic party finds itself. The conservative, we may say the Eastern, branch falls back upon Jefferson's authority for reiterating the old Democratic doctrines of individualism, as if conscious that the appeal sadly needs historic bolstering up. On this point Mayor McClellan spoke with refreshing plainness, forecasting a long delay during which the party must wait for the people to return to first principles. A very similar uneasiness was shown by the Chicago speakers when they tried to find warrant for the present vague and ill-formed anti-capitalism in Jefferson's qualms about issuing patents. To such shifts is a movement that distrusts its own vehemence reduced in the search for authority. In both cases was evident a pretty painful effort to establish an issue, and professions of individualistic and socialistic faith alike evinced a certain unreality.

"The Venezuelan case," it is now announced from Washington, "is a closed incident." The terrible grumble and rumble and roar of the past month has subsided, while President Castro and Minister Bowen disappear temporarily from the dispatches. Where, then, are the asphalt cases? Still in the Venezuelan court, whose processes, as inspired accounts had it only a few weeks ago, "the United States cannot recognize as having any validity." Secretary Taft, whom President Roosevelt left "sitting on the lid" at Washington, is willing to remain sitting there while the ordinary tribunals of a South American nation decide an important case in their regular way. Even the display of righteous indignation over the insulting language of the rash Venezuelan President is silently to be forgotten. The fact that, after calmly looking over the case with care, Secretary Taft may have discovered our former position to be untenable, surely ought not to justify the present pitiful collapse. It was a mistake to leave Taft in charge of the State Department at such a time. Give us Loomis, "acting," again.

The decision of the Isthmian Canal Commission to contract for 2,000 Japanese and 2,000 Chinese coolies will doubtless occasion not a little discussion. Taking advantage of the technicality that, while the canal zone is ours for administrative purposes, the title still resides in Panama, our Government proposes to do through its commission just what it prohibits private contractors from doing in the Philippines, namely, importing Asiatic laborers. The Commission has also sought an opinion from the Attorney-General on the question whether the same legal theory will not enable it to work its laborers for more than the Government eight-hour day. The practical exigencies of engineering work in the tropics have come squarely in conflict with the Chinese exclusion laws and the regulations laid down for Government work at home. As a result, means are being sought for evading these laws. Coolies are to be brought in under contract, worked as hard as possible, and then returned under forfeit. At best, this may be a regrettable necessity.

The President has again shown his disregard for fitness, and his collusion with political bargaining, in his appointments to the Federal bench. Close upon the heels of the promotion of Judge Kohlsaat in Chicago, comes the selection of ex-Governor Atkinson of West Virginia to fill a vacancy in the Court of Claims. Not only is that court one demanding exceptional legal proficiency and versatility; Mr. Atkinson has had no legal training whatever, and very little intellectual training of any kind, having passed from school teaching to the Methodist ministry, to journalism, and to politics. Not one of these fields of employment has any relation to the questions which come before the Court of Claims; and in what civilized country would such a preparation be considered sufficient for a judge of such a court, or indeed of any court except a lay one? Mr. Roosevelt's weakness as a President without legal discipline and experience glares again in this scandal; but if the root of civil-service-reform principle were in him, he would, though no lawyer, have turned in disgust from such a prostitution of his Executive powers.

There is an old-fashioned but salutary ring about the decision handed down on Monday by the United States Supreme Court, declaring the ten-hour bakery law of this State unconstitutional. The somewhat undefined police powers of our commonwealths have as their legitimate object the protection of the safety, health, and morals of the public. These laws have served all too frequently as the disguise under which labor organizations have attempted to create a partial monopoly. This pretence Mr. Justice Peckham, in his opinion, very clearly unmasks. The labor of the baker is in no wise peculiarly perilous to life or limb. The case is not at all analogous to that of the miner engaged in an employment fraught with unavoidable danger to life and health; nor analogous to the employment of women and children, who in some sort are to be regarded as the wards of the State. The learned judge took occasion to observe that there seemed to be a "suspicion that there was some other motive dominating the Legislature than the purpose to subserve the public health or welfare." With the majority of the court he declared that the law's absolute prohibition of the individual baker's right to work for more than ten hours a day was "an unreasonable, unnecessary, and arbitrary interference" with the rights of the individual under the Fourteenth Amendment. It was high time that an effectual stop should be put to the unionist's demand that no one be permitted to work more hours a day than the union deems proper.

The South Carolina dispensary case now pending before the Supreme Court points a curious contrast between the two main sources of Federal revenue. The Constitution confers upon the Federal Government a monopoly of revenue from customs duties. On the other hand, there is nothing in our organic law to prevent any commonwealth from imposing excise duties on the manufacture of such articles as spirits or tobacco, whence nearly half of the United States' revenue is derived, aside from the Post Office. The real deterrent to this action on the part of a State is the fear of driv-

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ing such industries into the tax jurisdiction of another State. South Carolina, however, attempted to monopolize the sale of spirits within her borders, whereupon the State dispensary was required by the Internal Revenue Bureau to take out and pay for Federal liquor licenses. The Court of Claims in the first instance nonsuited South Carolina, which sought to recover the amount paid for the licenses aforesaid. That Court held that a State could not, under cover of its police power, withdraw legitimate subjects from Federal taxation. A contrary decision would have jeoparded about one-third of the current income of the Treasury.

The newly created Railroad Rate Commission of the State of Washington encounters at the very outset of its labors a question which has perplexed and exasperated both railroads and shippers for many years. Because the coast cities could be reached by an all-water route from the East, they have received a lower freight-rate than the interior cities, of which Spokane is the chief, although the actual haul is very much shorter to the latter. Spokane had growing business interests, however, and eventually secured a concession from the railroads in the form of a schedule which made shipments from Puget Sound to the region about Spokane unprofitable except in carload lots. Now that the new commission has been created with power to correct abuses, it is this latter discrimination which is first to be attacked. The wholesalers of Seattle are preparing to protest that the rates which they are charged on shipments of less than a carload are unreasonably high. If this is granted, the Spokane merchants are put at a disadvantage to the extent of the higher rate which they have to pay from the East. This rate, owing to the water competition, may be beyond correction. Thus, the section most anxious for the new railroad law will perhaps be the first to suffer from its workings. The case well illustrates the inevitable complexity of the rate-making problem.

As an indication of Chicago's sympathy with radicalism, the return of Frank D. Comerford to the Illinois Legislature is quite as significant as the election of "immediate municipal ownership Dunne." It will be recalled that the young member from the Second District was recently expelled from the House at Springfield because he had charged that "grafting" was going on there. A whitewashing committee declared that he spoke without knowledge, but refused to go into the case seriously. The seat being declared vacant, young Comerford stood for reëlection. The conservative press was against him, but he had no trouble in winning. Now he says that he means to take up his crusade at Springfield again. His programme includes the introduction of a bill intended to accomplish what Gov. Folk has accomplished at Jefferson City—the control of lobbyists. "I'd require them to make regular reports to the Governor," he says, "just like convicts on parole." He has also marked the railroad-pass evil for attack, and will endeavor to pass a law requiring the Speaker of the House of Representatives of Illinois to appoint all committees within ten days of the opening of the session. A programme thus made up does not appear unduly radical, yet it is planned by the Legislature quietly to sidetrack Comerford—as Robert (Anti-Pass) Baker was sidetracked at Washington.

Gov. Johnson of Minnesota managed to get along smoothly for three months with the Republican Legislature of his State. Had not Minnesota just completed a new and magnificent capitol, the friendly relations might never have been disturbed. But the new building had to have a custodian, and under him an army of employees. The immemorial custom had been for the Governor to control such appointments, but the Republican legislators could not sit still and see a Democratic Governor shake down those plums. They promptly drafted and passed a bill taking control of the capitol out of the Governor's hands entirely. He vetoed it. The Senate in retaliation has refused to increase the Insurance Commissioner's salary, and threatens to deprive the Governor's private secretary of his former perquisites as a notary. "Now," observes the St. Paul *Dispatch*, "we see the rift in the lute, the break-up of the era of good feeling and of feeling good." A squabble over a number of firemen, janitors, and scrub-women has been allowed to block the efforts at conscientious and non-partisan legislation on matters which really concern the State.

Frank S. Black's plan to overthrow Odell as boss is not being accepted with enthusiasm by Republican politicians. A few of them, who are in Odell's blacklist and know that they have nothing to lose, are declaring their adherence to the forlorn hope. Against these malcontents may be lined up a more formidable battalion of fighters who are thoroughly committed to Odell, and who must now stand by him at any hazard. The neutrals inevitably side with the ins rather than the outs. They may detest Odell and his methods; but Odell carries the "dough-bag," and they will not cut themselves off from this base of supplies until they are sure Black is the coming man. If Gov. Higgins or President Roosevelt should openly favor the Black faction, then Odell's position would be precarious; but, barring the help of a god from the machine, the siege of the Odell stronghold is a desperate undertaking. Not that a boss more strongly entrenched than Odell has never been hurled from power. The indignation of the rank and file of the party, the general desire for honest and able leadership, may do the work where the scheming of politicians fails. The indignant rank and file, however, the champions of honesty, will never take the trouble to revolt against Odell in order to set up Black.

The facts made public on Thursday regarding the heavy decline in the Equitable Life's new business since the company's internal dissensions have been known, probably surprised no one familiar with the insurance field. They point unmistakably, however, to one conclusion. The investigating committee must lose no time in weighing the evidence and in framing and publishing its report. Ordinarily, considering the mass of data which must be reviewed, very large allowance for delay would be made. But the Equitable situation admits of none but unavoidable delay. Confronted with another investigation, by the Insurance Department of this State, possibly with similar moves by the insurance authorities of other States, and with great demoralization among its agents, the interests of the Equitable itself demand the earliest possible answer to the vague accusations and insinuations which have already been too long left unanswered. The experience of the New York Life with its own internal troubles fourteen years ago ought to be conclusive as a precedent. So long as its directors were passing "harmony resolutions" and deprecating hurtful publicity, the New York Life continued to lose business at a rate that was all but ruinous. Publication of a frank and unsparing report on past abuses—even where those abuses were most scandalous—and public evidence that their recurrence had been made impossible, resulted in such a return of business to the company that the lost ground was almost instantly regained.

Gov. Douglas of Massachusetts has once more shown his independence of the party machine in Boston by appointing to the chairmanship of the police commission Col. Charles H. Cole, jr. Instead of being a seasoned ward worker, the new head of police is a young man of thirty-three. Nearly fifteen years of experience with the State militia and a few months on the Governor's staff have been judged a better preparation for taking command of a city's police force than the ability to swing an organization into line at a municipal or State election. Naturally, the politicians are bewildered. They are discussing a probable "breach between the State House and City Hall."

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They are shocked that the Governor should ignore an alleged promise made during his campaign last fall that the Mayor should have the naming of the head of the Police Board. But the Mayor's choice fell upon the head of the Democratic city organization, a man more efficient in politics than in anything else. The Governor wisely decided not to take him away from his favorite occupation, and "went ahead on his own hook" in appointing Col. Cole. "Considering what the city escaped," says the Boston *Transcript* in discussing the choice, "the general public ought to be in pretty good humor."

The Massachusetts Labor Bulletin for March cites some interesting statistics indicating the percentage of wage-earners' children in normal schools and colleges. Returns from eight colleges in Massachusetts and one in New Hampshire show that, of 5,548 students, 43 per cent. are the children of business men; 24 per cent. of professional men; 7 per cent. of farmers, and 13 per cent. of wage-earners. Three schools of technology yield somewhat simliar results, except that only 12 per cent. of the technical students have fathers engaged in the professions. Similar investigations, based on replies from 1,658 students in ten normal schools in Massachusetts, disclose the fact that 45 per cent. of their pupils are sprung from the wage-earning stock. Our higher institutions of learning thus seem to show a healthy societary circulation. If Professor Marshall, the eminent English economist, is right in his estimate that half of the natural genius in a country is born within the class of manual labor, it would seem that there is no insuperable bar in this country to educating the promising section of this class. When Amherst, Harvard, and Williams show one-tenth of their students to be from the more capable wage-earning class, our colleges seem fairly guiltless of countenancing what Professor Marshall calls "that wasteful negligence which allows genius which happens to be born of lowly parentage, to expend itself in lowly work."

Among the official announcements from the Alabama State House is the following: "Gov. Jelks yesterday appointed C. M. Sherrod as Mayor, and R. H. Tweedy, A. F. Rebman, E. V. Chardavoyne as Aldermen of the town of Courtland, to hold office for the next two years." Thereby hangs a tale. Courtland was a Republican town, and was accordingly governed by Republican officials until five years ago, when the Legislature passed a law empowering the Governor, who is, of course, uniformly a Democrat, to appoint both Mayor and Aldermen. "But it saved the town from negro domination," will be the natural comment. On the contrary, the last census showed only twenty-one negroes in the whole of the county in which Courtland is located. Yet not even Pennsylvania's "ripper" bills ever went more than half so far in destroying local self-government. That the intolerance which denies political privileges to the black man can be turned on occasion against the white who differs with the dominant party of the State, is again perfectly plain.

Speaker Cannon is reported to be willing to assent at the next session to the creation of a public-buildings commission at the capital. As the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent points out, there is no issue of economy involved in this question. With or without the services of advisory experts, the Government is certain to erect new buildings at Washington from time to time. The only question is whether these shall be considered as parts of a general scheme, or located, haphazard, each one for itself, with no reference to their harmonious relations with each other. Last year, for instance, the Secretary of Agriculture, with Mr. Cannon's approval, wanted to put the new building of his Department in the beautiful Mall, an ideal site so far as that particular edifice was concerned, but absolutely destructive of the magnificent vista between the Capitol and the Monument. This threatened encroachment was averted, but a similar question may arise the very next time a great building has to be located. It is altogether deplorable that the work of the Burnham Commission, which merely amplified and perfected the original plans of Major L'Enfant, should have become involved in the entirely extraneous question of Senatorial aggrandizement.

It seems certain that Mr. Chamberlain has patched up a truce with Mr. Balfour, whose partial programme of retaliation he accepts for the nonce in lieu of the whole reciprocity plan. Presumably, then, Mr. Chamberlain will call off his independent candidate in Lord Hugh Cecil's constituency; otherwise professions of loyalty to the Government will have little meaning. Whether this adherence to party regularity involves the abandonment of his vast scheme of imperial federation, it would be premature to guess; it evidently proves that the campaign is dwindling. When Mr. Chamberlain left the Ministry it was to give Mr. Balfour space to follow after with prudent ease; Mahomet departed a sufficient interval from the mountain to admit of a convincing miracle. The miracle delaying to take place, Mahomet now returns. The incident will hardly bring credit to the prophet at a time when his doctrine is being kicked about by unbelievers all over Britain.

When the "Wee Kirk," consisting of a handful of Highland parishes, got legal possession of the rich property—including, as well as churches, parsonages and universities—of the United Free Kirk of Scotland, it was felt that the law had worked a great injustice. The larger body was dispossessed of buildings and endowments its congregations had enjoyed for years in good faith; the original covenanters were put into possession of hundreds of pulpits which they could not properly fill. So embarrassing was the unexpected success of the long litigation to the "Wee Kirk" that it gladly let the Free Kirk in most instances continue its tenancy on sufferance, pending a Parliamentary investigation. The commission has come to the apparently equitable decision that the small body of Free Kirkers which had opposed the union with the Presbyterians is entitled to the enjoyment of such property of the unionists as it can use. A remedial bill to this effect will be introduced in Parliament. Clearly, it will be difficult to define the capacity the "Wee Kirk" has in this matter, or at least to arrive at a definition wholly satisfactory to the Wee Kirkers. But the problem is, after all, in its mere legal aspects not so different from the apportionment of "a reasonable allowance" to an individual whose property is under distraint.

Baron de Constant, the well-known advocate of international arbitration, made a notable speech last week in the French Senate, urging a proportional reduction of the military and naval forces of the various European States. He cited the laudable example of Chili and Argentina to show that such joint action was within the realm of practical diplomacy. Baron de Constant contended that the present and prospective outlay upon the French navy, which contemplates the expenditure of $290,000,000 in the next twelve years, was "ruining France under the pretext of protecting her." He further proposed a practical initiation of the project by negotiating an Anglo-French agreement for mutual limitation of naval expenditures, and for securing the adherence of other nations to the plan. This beating of swords into ploughshares and spears into pruning-hooks on the instalment plan is worthy of careful consideration and adoption. It is a remarkable thing that where big industrial concerns see that competition is the death of their profits, they can readily restrain the ravages of their wasteful rivalry, even though sometimes at the expense of the consumer. Nations, however, in their career of "emulative exhaustion" are unable to get together, despite the fact that this basis of mutual concessions, instead of injuring a third party, would cause millions yet unborn—and not alone their own subjects—to rise up and call them blessed.

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OUR ITALIAN IMMIGRATION.

The Italian Government exercises through the law of 1901, which has been called by non-Italians "the finest example of contemporary social legislation," a legitimate and beneficent function little known to American writers on immigration. That law imposes a tax on every prospective emigrant—not exactly a proof of governmental encouragement. It forbids an emigrant to leave the kingdom without a passport issued by the local authorities. Such passport cannot be issued to a person who has been convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude; or, if it is issued, the criminal record of the applicant is given. If our own immigration law would provide for the exhibition of a passport (which every Italian immigrant carries), it would ensure a better certificate than the present absurd provision for asking an immigrant if he is an anarchist or a polygamist. Official instructions from the Italian Emigration Department to prefects in Southern Italy read as follows: "It is our plain duty, imposed by loyalty to the Government of the United States, to avoid any act on our part which might render difficult the application of the Federal provisions enacted for the purpose of sifting out the best immigrants." A little of this spirit of loyalty and good will on the part of the American Government towards Italy would go far to effect some international agreement regarding immigration, of general mutual benefit.

That the Italian Government is not opposed to such a plan is readily proved. Last year the Italian Emigration Department sent here one of its inspectors, Chev. Adolfo Rossi, not merely to study American conditions, but to get in touch with American immigration officials. The interviews had by Signor Rossi with Commissioner-General Sargent and the then Commissioner at New York, Mr. William Williams, are not mentioned in Mr. Sargent's last annual report, yet some very practical suggestions were made looking to the better enforcement of existing laws. Signor Rossi called Commissioner Sargent's attention to the necessity of the American Government's enforcing a very useful United States statute—article 4 of the United States Passenger Act—which provides that immigrant ships shall have suitable space for immigrants to sit down at table for their meals. It was pointed out that 90 per cent. of the immigrant ships entering the Port of New York violated this provision, and the evidence collected by Commissioner Williams during Signor Rossi's stay bore out the complaint. Such violations mean that, during stormy weather, steerage passengers, who often exceed 1,200 on a single ship, are fed in their berths. Imagine the hygienic conditions in the crowded steerage, with portholes and hatches closed, and many of the immigrants sick. We believe Commissioner-General Sargent has taken no action on such violations, not even mentioning the matter in his annual report.

It is well known that Italy allows United States medical inspectors to examine emigrants at ports of departure. Certainly this is some evidence of her willingness to aid in the enforcement of our statutes. An inspector at Naples, being asked why it was that he allowed certain emigrants to sail, some of whom, such as cretins, were, even to a layman, visibly physically unfit, declared the trouble to be with our statute, which gives inspectors the right to exclude only emigrants having certain diseases, notably infectious or contagious. Cretinism thus does not fall within the Federal provisions, and the victims of it are therefore allowed to sail, though certain to be rejected on their arrival.

It is generally said that the examination of the emigrant should be at the place of origin rather than at the place of arrival. The opinion of Italians in Government, political, and journalistic circles is that Italy would permit American boards to sit in Italian ports if the subject were properly presented. If our immigration authorities, instead of sending secret-service men to discover dark and fearful plots on the part of European governments to dump their criminals here, would resort to the more dignified policy of frank coöperation with a friendly nation through diplomatic channels, an international conference on immigration would certainly be possible.

Italian official reports might be cited urging the Italian immigrant here to higher standards of life, to become a citizen of his adopted country, and to avoid incurring the enmity of the working classes by selling his labor at less than current wages. Thinking Italians are convinced that the Americanization of the Italian immigrant is not only unavoidable, but desirable. Conditions in this country are entirely different from those in South America, where Italy may dream of a political future. They appreciate the endeavor of Americans to aid the Italian immigrant during the trying ordeal of his first experience here. The New York colony of itself has never been able to maintain successfully an institution of any influence or importance. The Italian Home was a terrible failure; the Italian Immigrant Aid Society lived only a short time; the Columbus Hospital is a religious, not a colonial, institution. The one bright spot is the Benevolent Institute, but its comparative success is due not to the interest of the colony, but to the generosity and unceasing work of one man—Celestino Piva. "The Society for Italian Immigrants at New York," said a member of the Italian Senate, "does more and better work than any Italian Immigrant Society abroad." And the late Commissioner of Immigration at Rome, in his last report, said: "We owe thanks to those American citizens who constitute a majority of the members of the Society [for Italian Immigrants] who assist our Italian laborers. They furnish an admirable example of civic charity, for, busy as they are with their own affairs, they sacrifice time and money to assist a foreign people in finding occupations useful both to them and to the country of adoption."

It is apparent, then, that both public and Government opinion in Italy would not oppose, and very likely would favor, any fair proposal by this Government for a better system of selecting and distributing Italians coming here. But a very different policy from the one now in vogue would have to be followed. To deal with Italy as if she were a South American republic, to substitute the Big Stick for the necessary courtesies of diplomacy—above all, to approach the question in any other spirit than that of equality, sincerity, and trust in the honesty of the other high contracting party—would be to doom the enterprise from the beginning.

"UNDERWRITING" AND THE EQUITABLE.

The public has not had long to wait for the first tangible results of the searching questions addressed by the Frick investigating committee to the Equitable management. Scarcely a week had elapsed when confessions of the most damaging sort were already being made by implicated parties. We say confessions because, manifestly, Mr. Hyde's revelations, in his letter of the 15th to the committee, would never have been made but for the intensity with which the searchlight of public inquiry has been turned upon the company's affairs. Mr. Hyde's deposit with the Equitable's treasurer of his profits in past "underwritings" where securities were sold to the Equitable Company, was by his own statement not contemplated until "the outset of this controversy." This is Mr. Hyde's review of the transaction:

"There has been a syndicate known as 'James H. Hyde and Associates,' including James W. Alexander, president of the society, whose participation was always equal to my own, and this syndicate had been underwriters of a number of banking issues of securities, and the Equitable Society purchased, in some instances, in the ordinary course of business, securities which had been underwritten by this syndicate. At the outset of this controversy, Mr. Alexander and I were both advised by counsel that as to any such syndicate transactions in which any officers of the Equitable Society had been interested, a full statement should be made up and laid before the board of directors, and whatever law and justice required regarding them should be done by the officers concerned. Following the advice above referred to, I examined all these syndicate transactions and deposited my check for $61,446.92 with the treasurer of the Society as trustee. This amount represented my entire profits from syndicate transactions of the character above mentioned, with 6 per cent. in-

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terest up to the date of such deposit period."

The statement concludes with the further assertion that Mr. Hyde admits no wrongdoing, and that the transactions referred to were "made with the sanction of universal precedent."

We have no other information as to the "underwritings" in which "James H. Hyde and Associates" were engaged. It may be as well, however, to outline clearly what is the nature of these undertakings. On the basis of such knowledge, we think the reader can draw his own conclusions as to the propriety of a high officer in a life-insurance company participating in a syndicate of this sort and selling the "underwritten" securities to his company. The purpose of underwriting, in this sense, is to guarantee a market at a price for new securities. These securities may be good or bad, sound or rotten; they may be an issue of United States Government bonds or the stock of the Shipbuilding combination. The syndicate, unless it can find a market for the underwritten securities elsewhere, must promptly pay the contracted price. Two necessary inferences follow: one, that the underwriter's profits depend altogether on the price at which he can sell the securities in question; the other, that the inducement to "unload" in a friendly quarter becomes greater as the prospects of the "underwriting" grow less favorable. Thus it must be clear to the simplest intelligence that the possibilities are such as to make the Hyde transaction with the Equitable Society indefensible in both law and morals.

Mr. Hyde very prudently refrains from any defence based on the smallness of his profits in the underwriting. Half a dozen years ago, such an argument might have been employed. To-day, with the incidents of 1901 and 1903 fresh in mind, the public has a pretty clear notion of what Wall Street underwriting may involve, and is not at all likely to pass lightly over any sign of the use of a life company's resources in such a connection. It will infer, very naturally, that Mr. Hyde's $61,000 is not the final accounting in this direction. The sixth question put by the Frick committee asked for a statement of "all the so-called underwritings by the Society." If the Equitable management has clean hands to show in connection with the wild "promoting deals" of 1901 and 1902, it will have reason to thank the framer of that question.

As a matter of fact, during that time of madness nothing was more disquieting to cool-headed financiers than suspicion as to the employment of life-insurance surpluses. Whose money stood behind the amazing performances of the "second Steel syndicate," the Shipping Trust underwriting, and the United States Shipbuilding promotion, the banking connections of which have, to this day, been veiled in mystery? That there was life-insurance participation in some of these undertakings, has long been known. It will be no misfortune if we now learn exactly how much and how little this one great company had to do with them. Believing, as we do, that such participation was questionable in the highest degree, we think also that full public information on the facts is very desirable. It is time that the public learned whether or not these institutions have been or could be used to support the ambitious schemes of promoting or speculating financiers. Whatever the facts developed, we are convinced that good will come of their disclosure.

We have said little as to the legal irregularity of the transaction described by Mr. Hyde. It appears to us, however, to be abundantly covered, in both language and intent, by the severe prohibitory paragraph of the Insurance Act providing that "no director or officer of an insurance corporation doing business in this State shall receive any money or valuable thing for negotiating, procuring, or recommending any loan from any such corporation, or for selling or aiding in the sale of any stocks or securities to or by such corporation." Nor do we propose to enter into the controversy as to whether Mr. Alexander's alleged participation in this "underwriting" of "James H. Hyde and Associates" made the matter worse or better. We hold a brief for neither faction; but we are very sure that the investigation into the whole Equitable matter cannot now be stopped until the last stone is turned in the public view, and the record of the responsible officers made clear.

A REVIVIFIED UNIVERSITY.

The installation of Mr. Edwin A. Alderman as President of the University of Virginia, so worthily celebrated at Charlottesville on Thursday, unquestionably marks the beginning of a new era in the history of that famous institution. This is not merely because, disregarding a sacredly observed tradition, it has at last chosen a responsible executive in place of government by its faculty, marshalled merely by a chairman of limited powers. Speaking generally, there have been two great periods in the University's history: the ante-bellum and the post-bellum. From its foundation until the civil war, it was the home of able scholars and the especial pride of the South, beside which the other institutions below Mason and Dixon's line were often not much more than flourishing high schools. As President Alderman said in his inaugural: "To the Southern man of middle life *the* university meant *this* university." Since 1865 it has recovered but slowly from the ravages of the war, not, however, because its buildings have not been thronged with students. To have been even for a time at Charlottesville is a distinction as clearly prized in the South to-day as a Harvard degree in Massachusetts.

Yet the University of Virginia has attained only tardily and in part that material prosperity which many sister institutions have long enjoyed. The destructive fire of ten years ago was needed to arouse public sentiment to the lack of proper facilities and to insure the construction of those buildings which to-day make it so notable architecturally. Mr. Carnegie's offer of half a million, conditional upon an equal sum from other friends of the institution, now assures for President Alderman's administration a gratifying increase in teaching efficiency. From the educational point of view the need of additional endowment is very great. Good as the teaching at Charlottesville has been, it has smacked of the text-book more than of the scientific spirit of the modern university. Indeed, as compared with Harvard or Michigan, the University of Virginia has contributed scarcely more than a "conception of culture as a compound of sound learning and gracious conduct." Though Jefferson himself is properly credited with being the first American to see in the distant future the outlines of the Germanized university of to-day, his own institution, the last of his "mortal cares" and the "last service" he could render his country—as he himself expressed it—has fallen short in the search for the truth.

Some of the reasons for this have already been touched upon. The lack of a president, the want of means, and the inability to set up a rigid standard of entrance examinations because of the absence of good preparatory schools, have all had a part. Students have entered almost as unquestioned as if attending lectures at Heidelberg; but comparatively few have been able to obtain their degrees, and still fewer have gone away with the investigator's zeal fully aroused. So, too, the University's location in the South has handicapped it, with its consequent attachment to a social order which denied freedom of thought even to its own citizens throughout the slavery era, and which is only now faintly aware in a few places that freedom of speech and thought is absolutely essential if a university is to be true to itself and to its community.

Right here lies President Alderman's greatest opportunity. At Vanderbilt, at Sewanee, at Washington and Lee, at the University of Georgia, and at Trinity College, Southern professors have begun to find their tongues, and to say their say without stopping to ask the cost. They have dared to criticise the deeds of the past, yea, even the existing order, and, though it has thundered and lightened, the skies have not fallen, and the academic atmosphere has thereafter been

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sweeter and purer and far more inspiring. Now is the time for the University of Virginia to throw off that provincialism to which Dr. Alderman pleaded guilty so gracefully, and to enter more fully into the companionship and spiritual life of her sister universities of the North and West, from which the bitternesses and the memories of the past have not unnaturally cut her off to a greater or less degree.

Never in all the history of the South has there been a greater need for her universities to serve her well than to-day. The whole Southern country is athirst for education. Colleges and schools are feeling as never before the quickening impulse of rich gifts from North and South. There is under way an economic revolution which for the first time bids fair to develop all the vast material resources of the old slave States. The negro, hitherto a burden, even when most highly prized as a chattel, is lifting himself into prosperity and usefulness with fairly astounding speed. Yet with it all there is a deplorable lack of intellectual and of moral, as well as of brave and honest political, leadership from Virginia to the Gulf. Never before in the land of Jefferson has there been such a call for enlightened statesmanship. And of all the patriotic teachers of the South to-day no one has a more splendid opportunity than President Alderman. Equipped with a rare gift of eloquence, admirably trained by learning and by experience as the head of two institutions, on him now depends how valuable a service "*the* university" is to give, not merely to the South, but to the North. His own moving inaugural plea for spiritual freedom and for economic independence and justice is a happy omen for his administration.

THE ART SITUATION IN NEW YORK

Rumors of merger of the art organizations of this city come with a rapidity fairly recalling the spacious days when the United States Steel Company was in vigorous if embryonic growth. It will make for clearness to note that there are really two proposals for alliance, each quite distinct from the other. First, it is proposed that the Society of American Artists should rejoin the National Academy of Design; second, Columbia University has made overtures for a more or less formal alliance with the Academy and the Metropolitan Museum. The intention is that all three should coöperate for academic and practical instruction in art after the fashion of the École des Beaux-Arts. About two years ago Columbia advertised large expectations in the direction of the fine arts; President Butler's letter brings the project within the range of discussion.

As to the proposed union of the Society and the Academy, it would be most heartily welcome. To-day there is no real rivalry between them. The issues of 1905 are not those of 1877. The Paris trained independents who nearly thirty years ago set up their standard in defiance of Düsseldorf and the Hudson River School, are to-day grave and reverend seigniors—academicians in temper and, many of them, in name. For years the dissidents have been slipping back by a process of "painless penetration" to the older body; to-day about one-third of the Academicians are members of the nominally hostile society. Meantime the pressure of the Society—for many years a genuine representative of modern ideas—insensibly liberalized the Academy until there was little to choose between the two juries on the score of openmindedness. Indeed, there was some danger that the venerable Academy might seem more wide awake than the secession—by as much as Tory radicalism exceeds Radical radicalism. There is no reason, then, why the form of a separation no longer real should be kept up. The Academy will gain from an accession of young blood; the Society's work of liberalization is done, and, in view of the very practical and sentimental advantage of Academy membership, it can well afford to sink an honorable identity in the patriotic cry, *Vivat Academia.*

Whether the reinforced Academy with the Metropolitan Museum should enter into a close alliance with Columbia University is a more debatable matter. Until the exact nature of the federation is known, criticism can only be of a very general and tentative sort. One may fairly assume, however, that the University will support all the lectureships on the theory of art (æsthetics) and on the history of art; that the Academy will continue to control its own exhibitions and schools of painting, sculpture, and engraving; that the Metropolitan Museum will merely offer its facilities more freely than heretofore to students of the Academy and University. Such an attitude is only a resumption of an old *entente*, under which Columbia University supplied lecturers, the Museum the halls and the use of the collections. Under Sir Purdon Clarke it is certain that students of whatever affiliations, or none, will be hospitably received; indeed, the provisional management has already worked a gratifying change in the old habit of indifference to students' needs. For the future it may be assumed that accredited lecturers, whether of the sedentary or peripatetic sort, will be welcome. To-day, any Columbia professor who desired to expound any collection to his pupils could doubtless pass as freely as Ernst Curtius used to with his "Peripatetiker" through the halls of the Altes Museum. In other words, the alliance of the Museum and the University would involve very little except frank interchange of courtesies and facilities, with, in part, a common personnel on the two boards of trustees. Already this exists in substance, and any nominal federation will obviously be *Columbiæ in majorem gloriam.*

On the other hand, an alliance between Columbia and the National Academy would be of a more serious sort; it could hardly fail to bring prestige to Columbia; it might seriously prejudice the future of the Academy at a time when it is full of promise. At the outset, a University has nothing to do with the training of artists *per se.* So far, then, as the Academy is a teaching body, it has little to gain, except an undesirable site, by coming under the wing of the University. The freer, one may say, the less academic, the training of an art school is, the better. Furthermore, the exhibiting function of the Academy would be much better exercised independently and at a distance from the University. It would be unfortunate if our great annual exhibitions should be held at Morningside Heights instead of in some more central location; it would be a very unhappy outcome of the proposed merger if the Academy show should become a mere appanage of the University as the old Salon is of the Institut de France.

This is said in no unfriendly spirit towards a plan which may contemplate so close an association neither of sites nor of interests, but only that the Academy may count the cost. From the University it has rather little to gain; a small number of its more intellectual pupils may follow the Columbia courses in æsthetics and history of art; its schools will be at the disposal of Columbia students who for any reason desire skill with brush or pencil. All this might easily be arranged by courtesy or by mere commutation of tuition fees. In other words, nominal federation with Columbia would mean little more in the case of the Academy than it did in that of the Museum. By borrowing the names of two art institutions, Columbia might get the appearance of an art department, but hardly the reality. If Columbia wants a university faculty of the fine arts, her course is simple: she has merely to release for instruction in the fine arts competent professors now assigned chiefly to other subjects, and to appoint new professors where her present staff does not suffice. The rest is merely supplementing adequately the already notable collection of art reproductions in the Avery Library. If Columbia will but organize a force of teachers competent to teach art—to undergraduates as a means of liberal culture; to graduates as training in research—she may count upon the coöperation of the Metropolitan Museum, and, we are confident, of the National Academy of Design. In fine, Columbia's proffer of alliance remains rather empty until Presi-

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dent Butler can point to a properly organized faculty in the main branches of art history. The proposed merger should indicate that such a department is in active process of formation.

A MUSICAL COPYRIGHT STRIKE.

The cabled news that a score of London music publishers, including many of the leading houses, have made an agreement not to print any new compositions or to sign any contracts with singers, players, or composers until Parliament consents to amend the musical copyright law, does not reveal a hitherto unheard-of state of affairs. A similar strike was begun last year, but on a smaller scale, and with the same object, namely, to get the printers and other allied trades to bring strong pressure to bear upon the Government to stop the present wholesale pirating of music. Now, it is hoped to tie up completely the publication, if not the production, of new tunes, until Parliament in self-defence surrenders—if only to limit the ravages of popular songs and to secure the rights of the music printers and publishers. Since members of Parliament have ears, like their humble brothers of the street, we look for an early triumph for the reputable publishers who have been driven to such desperate methods.

The pirating complained of has grown steadily. At a public meeting held in London under the auspices of the Musical Defence League, the Duke of Argyll presiding, Mr. William Boosey said that the evil was a comparatively new one, but had been rife for eight or nine years. Three million copies of pirated music have been seized since 1902, but this is barely one-tenth of what has been sold illegally. In one month recently 700,000 copies were confiscated. The profits of the pirates are so great that they can afford to lose a part of their stock. Some of their printing places have been closed, but the fines imposed by the present law do not suffice to abate the evil, and a new law is wanted which will jail music thieves as it does other classes of robbers.

Twice the passage of the Musical Copyright bill has been frustrated by the stubborn opposition of a single man, Mr. James Caldwell, whose obstruction tactics have developed into what has been denounced as "a scandal without equal or precedent in Parliamentary history." On one occasion, to prevent the other side from being heard, he spoke for three hours, branching out into such important questions as railway sidings and the hallmarking of foreign silver plate Singing his own favorite pirated airs would have been a more appropriate method of obstruction. In 1903 he professed himself willing to accept the bill upon the granting of one extraordinary condition: that for nine months after it had become a law, pirates should be permitted to print and sell their stolen music, and that their copies should not be liable to confiscation or penalty. "This proposal to legalize robbery by act of Parliament was," as Mr. Boosey remarked, "indignantly rejected, and with it our second attempt to obtain justice failed."

The main pretext for the opposition has been that, as music is a necessity for the poorer classes, Parliament should not be asked to protect musical property. But, as a matter of fact, the Government already does a great deal to supply, not cheap, but actually free music to the poor. Instruction in the art is supplied to all in the public schools at a cost of millions. In the parks there are free band concerts. The publishers sell a great deal of the best music at almost cost price. One of them issues a penny magazine containing eight or ten new copyright songs and pieces by popular writers. But as the issuing of new music is even more of a lottery than the launching of books, the successes being few and far between, the publishers are obliged to charge extra in all cases to cover their losses on most of their ventures. The efforts made by the proprietors of two cheap journals to revolutionize music-publishing by issuing new copyright songs at sixpence, were merely an advertising scheme, bound to come to an end after it had served its purpose. The street pirates sell their songs at a penny or two apiece, and can afford to do so, as they need not take any chances, but can wait until a given piece has proved its popularity. Lately, however, we are informed, they have become so emboldened by their success that they do take chances in the case of musical comedy numbers, so as to be in the market at the earliest moment in case of a "hit."

The charge has been made that the present agitation is entirely in favor of the publishers, and that the composers suffer little or nothing by the theft of their property. But the meeting referred to was attended by a number of England's most prominent composers—among them Sir Hubert Parry, Sir A. C. Mackenzie, Sir Edward Elgar, Edward German, Paolo Tosti, Dr. W. H. Cummings, Hamish MacCunn, A. Randegger, Sir Walter Parratt, Liza Lehmann, and Charles Godfrey—who were well aware of the losses threatening them. One popular writer, Stephen Adams, has testified that his profits have been reduced more than one-half by the pirates, and it is estimated that the total loss to British composers within three years amounts to $185,000. The outcome of the present strike will naturally be awaited by them with deep concern. The music publishers are certainly as much entitled to protection as those who produce books. As for the composers, every one's sympathies must go out to them. They are the most underpaid of all brain-workers; just a year ago the question was discussed whether, at the great music festivals where everybody who sings or plays is paid, the composers of the works performed should not also receive something more than the honor of getting a hearing and perhaps an ovation.

THE REFORM OF FRENCH SPELLING.

ITHACA, N. Y., March 25, 1905.

The movement for the reform of French spelling that has been going on with varying success for the last hundred years, has now reached a crucial point. It is no longer in the realm of theoretical discussions and newspaper agitations: a definite plan of changes, a complete and coherent bill of reform, is before the competent jurisdiction, awaiting its decision. This jurisdiction is twofold, being composed of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which controls all the state examinations in France, and the French Academy, whose authority in these matters has up to the present been recognized as supreme alike by the Government, the proof-readers, and the public.

The question, unimportant as it may seem, is creating a sensation in France among literary people, the teachers, and perhaps the schoolboys. The newspapers are publishing impassioned appeals from the reformers and indignant protests from the defenders of the purity of the language, to say nothing of the humorists, who find in this subject a rich vein for their satire. The *Revue Bleue* took the initiative in a petition signed by a great many writers of unequal prominence expressing a strong desire that the "traditional orthography" be not interfered with.

The movement for spelling reform is by no means new. Ever since the beginning of the last century, French orthography has been under attack. In Petit de Julleville's history of French literature, M. Ferdinand Brunot says: "The only thing that remained untouched in this stormy age was orthography, although universally acknowledged to be detestable." M. Michel Bréal, who is opposed to the reform, remarks that everybody asks for it in periods of calm, and nobody wants it when it is really offered. As early as 1805, a grammarian speaks of "la déraison orthographique," and in the thirties appeared a pamphlet entitled 'Les Inepties de la Langue Française.' From time to time some spasmodic attempts at reform manifested themselves either by a convention such as took place in French Switzerland in 1867, or by some monthly or weekly newspaper which, joining the example to the lesson, anticipated the orthography of the future by using it in its columns. In 1896 a petition was presented to M. Combes, then Minister of Public Instruction; and the late M. Gréard, a man of great tact and conservatism, presented to the Academy a favorable report. But nothing came of it. As to the reform adopted in 1901, and now slowly being introduced into the textbooks of the country, it deals mostly with syntactical peculiarities and not with the spelling of words.

The present agitation started with a resolution of the Minister of Public Instruction, in February, 1903, appointing a commission entrusted with the duty of presenting suggestions for "the simplification of

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spelling." This commission was made up of philologists, grammarians, and teachers, besides two deputies, one a schoolmaster and the other a business man, and both Socialists in politics. At the head of the commission was M. Paul Meyer, the well-known professor at the École des Chartes, and the most prominent members were MM. Brunot, Croiset, Louis Havet, and Antoine Thomas, all professors at the Sorbonne, and the last-named a co-worker with Hatzfeld and Darmesteter in their great Dictionary. This commission finished its work in July, 1904. M. Paul Meyer presented his report to the Minister of Public Instruction with all the changes that the commission deemed reasonable and practical. It is this report, published in the *Revue Universitaire* of November 15, that has created the sensation.

The principle seems to have been to adapt the spelling to the pronunciation in a certain number of words whose orthography is too misleading, and to suppress letters that are useless or were introduced by ignorant philologists. Here are, in brief, the main changes proposed:

(1) To replace final *x* by *s* as the sign of the plural.

(2) To suppress double consonants in words like *ballet, ballon, charrette, collier, corridor.*

(3) To replace *y* having the *i*-sound by *i* in such words as *analyse, psychologie.*

(4) To suppress the *h* in *rh, th* and *ch* (with the *k*-sound, as in *chœur*), and substitute *f* for *ph.* Thus, one would write *rapsode* for *rhapsode, téâtre* for *théâtre, filosofie* for *philosophie.*

(5) To unify the spelling of all words of the fourth conjugation, and to write *je prens* like *je crains.*

(6) To replace the *s* of *case, épouse, blason,* etc., with a *z.*

(7) To replace the soft or palatal *g* with a *j,* writing *plonjon* instead of *plongeon, manjer* instead of *manger, gajure* instead of *gageure.*

(8) To replace the *t* of *aristocratie, ambition, nation, inertie,* etc., by a *c,* and write *aristocracie, ambicion, nacion, inercie.*

This report of the commission was transmitted to the Academy, which in turn appointed a commission to discuss the project. The decision has just reached us, and it seems that that body has been neither as conservative nor as revolutionary as was feared or hoped. At any rate, until some definitive solution is reached, the interest of the controversy lies in the arguments brought forth by the opposing parties, and it is these arguments which I should like to sum up.

In favor of the reform the arguments are such as have always been urged by all reformers:

(1) It is essential to suppress the many complications of French spelling so as to save time, both for school children and for foreigners, and avoid the useless hours wasted in learning irregularities of orthography that have no excuse for existing, not even in etymology.

(2) The orthography ought to be as far as possible consistent with the pronunciation or the words. Why write *femme* when one pronounces *fame* (which was the spelling of the Middle Ages), or *paon* when the word is sounded like *pan?* There is danger of altering the true pronunciation of the word, and people are already beginning to pronounce wrongly the *p* in *sculpter* and *promptitude.* Why write *ville* and *fille* alike when the pronunciation is so different? What is the use of the *gt* in *doigt,* which ought to be spelled like *doit?* Why a *d* in *poids,* especially when one remembers that this *d* was the result of a mistake on the part of a sixteenth-century pedant?

(3) The double consonants are a puzzle that no amount of reasoning and logic can explain. Why *siffler* with two *f*'s and *persifler* with only one, *imbécile* with one *l* and *imbécillité* with two, *chariot* and *charrue, sonner* and *sonore?*

(4) The *h* and *r* are a source of confusion in all words derived from the Greek. Why *théâtre* and *trône, frénésie* and *phrénologie?* Why *fantôme* and *flegmatique* on the one hand and *pharmacie* or *philosophie* on the other? They all represent the same Greek letters.

Taken all in all, these reforms, says Prof. P. Meyer, are not revolutionary, but conservative. In many cases the reform goes back to the old spelling, which had been forgotten. In all cases it aims to preserve the spelling that corresponds to the true pronunciation as well as to logic and common sense. A faulty spelling is sure to bring about a faulty pronunciation.

To these arguments, based on logic, history, or common sense, the opponents of the reform oppose reasons of various sorts. In the first place, M. Faguet, who spoke for the Academy, remarks, in an article published in the *Gaulois,* that, in spite of all reform, spelling would always be a long and tedious study; hence the saving of time would be trifling. In the second place, the attempt to make orthography copy the pronunciation cannot give satisfactory results, because "nobody is sure of the pronunciation," since "it varies from one man to another." Again, some of the changes would add to the confusion complained of, affecting only the primary word and leaving out the words derived from it. M. Meyer would write *fame* instead of *femme,* but would retain *féminin;* he proposes *cor* for *corps,* but does not change *corporel, corporation; tems* for *temps,* but *temporel* remains untouched; *pié* for *pied,* but *piédestal* retains its *d.* Moreover, some of these new spellings would tend to absurdity. M. Faguet again quotes as ridiculous these two sentences: "Son doit (finger) doit être coupé," "Il n'y aura ni ni ni fleur" (there will be neither nest nor flower). To this M. Meyer replies that there are already many words of that type in the language, and that nobody confuses *port* (*de mer*) with *port* (*d'armes*), for instance.

The main objection, however, does not come from this source. It comes from the artists, be they poets or prose writers, who consider that words are not mere stenographic signs; that they have a definite form and expression, and, so to speak, a face that we know and should hate to see altered. This æsthetic argument has been expressed by no one better than by Sully Prudhomme, who wrote in the *Revue Bleue* of March 4: "In themselves these faces are neither beautiful nor ugly, but any change makes them monstrous, comical." To many of these artists, to whom, as to Victor Hugo, "the word is a living being," and some words are as dear as favorite melodies, simplifications of spelling appear sacrilegious, and the reformers are hateful iconoclasts. The very thought that the poems of their favorite authors, and especially their own, should be rendered unrecognizable, makes them indignant. They cannot bear to have great masterpieces from the seventeenth century down to the present day, which are all printed in an orthography universally accepted, suddenly appear in a form at once strange and archaic, which shocks the eye and makes them look like caricatures.

In vain the reformers reply to those who are afraid of changing their habits that they do not want any one who has learned to spell to change his orthography, and that the two methods may well exist side by side for a score of years. In vain, too, M. Havet tells us, in an incisive plea for reform, that the new spelling of some words shocks his eye, too; but, since it does not shock his reason, he will soon get accustomed to it. In vain they tell the patient conservatives who are willing to wait for the next edition of the 'Dictionnaire de l'Académie,' that the last edition was published in 1878, and that the next edition has not gone further than the letter *c.* In vain, finally, the reformers remind us of the millions of children who are starting in life, and to whom the new rational spelling will be as natural as the old is to us. All these arguments are met by the sullen and invincible resistance of the force of habit.

The agitation created by the petition of these writers, the hostile articles in the press—above all, the strong feeling of conservatism that opposes all innovations which shock our physical habits, the most stubborn of all—were sufficient indications of the attitude of the French Academy, which is not given to revolutionizing nor to opposing public opinion. Actually, the report of the Academy presented by M. Faguet accepted changes in 150 words only, for which two spellings will be tolerated, such as *rapsode* and *rhapsode, confidenciel* and *confidentiel, potenciel* and *potentiel.* As to the seven words in *ou—chou, caillou, bijou,* etc.—which took an *x* in the plural, they may now be written with an *s,* like *clou* and *sou.*

It remains to be seen whether or not the Government will accept this makeshift, or whether it will endorse the conclusions of its commission and encourage the preparation of the new dictionary which it has recommended. But this is a reform over which universal suffrage is not very impatient, and it appears that the most radical in politics are often the most conservative in spelling. There was no more timid member in the commission, M. Meyer tells us, than the schoolmaster and deputy, M. Carnaud, who, in Parliament, is an uncompromising revolutionist, ready to destroy private property and upset the whole social fabric, but who, when it came to dropping a letter in a word, trembled lest it might shock the eye and hurt the feelings of that respectable but antiquated institution, the French Academy.

OTHON GUERLAC.

THE AUSTRALIAN BLACKS.

SYDNEY, March 6, 1905.

With laudable candor, the Government of West Australia has issued a blue-book which, for its pitiless exposure of the ill-usage of an indigenous race, may rank with

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Mrs. Helen Jackson's terrible indictment, 'A Century of Dishonor.' In 121 folio pages it contains the evidence of a large number of witnesses—some of them indignant disinterested spectators of cruelty and injustice; others police officers implicated, whose testimony must have been wrung from them; and a few stipendiary magistrates who had administered a harsh law with their hearts lacerated and their consciences seared. A stern summary of the facts elicited and a series of proposals for the radical amendment of an intolerable state of things accompany the report.

The condition of the blacks in West Australia has for a long time past in England, and for a much shorter time in more callous Australia, arrested the attention of sympathizers with a dying race. Dr. Rentoul, Professor of Theology to the Presbyterian Church of Victoria, and at one time leader of the church, was the first to take the field in a black crusade. He had served an apprenticeship in another campaign. When the South African war broke out, the ecclesiastical chief struck a diplomatic attitude and burked a resolution moved by a solitary member of the presbytery of Melbourne condemning the war. As the unequal struggle advanced, he experienced a change of heart. He became an enthusiastic pro-Boer, and founded the Victorian peace and conciliation league. Together with the attorney-general of a future Labor Ministry in the Commonwealth, two Labor legislators in New South Wales, and the professor of history in the University of Sydney, he formed one of a "small, transfigured band" which every variety of public and social persecution failed to intimidate. The taste of obloquy he then had, or the keener insight it gave him into the oppression of a whole race, made Dr. Rentoul an ardent advocate of the Australian blacks. In many a letter addressed to the colonial journals, he recited their wrongs. He told of the cruelties that were being practised upon them in the Northern Territory, Queensland, and West Australia. He was a voice crying in the "bush," and he was heard only of the laughing jackasses. The patient writer might have worn down his clerical quill to a stump before ever he made the faintest dint on the hardened colonial conscience.

Colonists in new countries have hardly any morality in their dealings with the indigenes. They use them for their labor or their pleasure, as suits themselves. The conscience of the motherland has to educate the colonial conscience, as Disraeli had to "educate" the Conservative party. The English conscience, now with an "unlidded eye" where colored races are concerned, if rather drowsy where a rival race threatens British supremacy, has had constantly to guide and ethically to train the colonists. It first suppressed and then reformed the infamous labor traffic in the Pacific, where Kanakas from the New Hebrides and other Melanesian islands were kidnapped, torn away from their homes, and carried off to work in the canebrakes of Northern Queensland. It appointed and paid a succession of Protectors of the Aborigines in New Zealand to shield the Maoris against the rapacity and cruelty of the settlers. In the interests of the Maoris, it resolutely resisted attempted infractions of the Treaty of Waitangi, under which the British Government took over the islands. Naturally, it was only when the colonial charges were reiterated in the English journals that the sluggish colonial authorities were aroused to take action.

Dr. Rentoul's accusations were repeated last year in the *Times* by a West Australian, Mr. Malcolmson, who supported them by accounts of harrowing sights he had himself witnessed in the tropical parts of the State. All philanthropic England was moved, and the West Australian Government was adjured to suppress such crying iniquities. On the other hand, the chief of the police, several pioneer squatters, and one or two impartial persons who knew the country, maintained that the charges were grossly exaggerated, and asserted that the blacks were well-used, contented, and jovial. Amid the clash of conflicting testimonies it was suggested in an article contributed (by the present writer) to an English review that a royal commission should be set up to inquire into the whole subject of the treatment of the blacks. It would be rash to connect the suggestion and the appointment as respectively cause and consequence, but it is a fact that soon afterwards Dr. Roth, very favorably known as Protector of the Aborigines in Queensland, and author of an authoritative volume on the blacks of that State, was appointed commissioner by the colonial government impeached. The commissioner visited great part of the extensive coast (it is complained that he did not visit the interior, where the state of things may not be quite so bad) where whites come into close contact with the blacks, made careful investigations, and (as stated) has just reported at length.

The "iniquitous" indenture system was supposed to be the head and front of the West Australian offending. A perusal of the statute of 1886 creating it does not at first justify the description of it as being "in every way unjust and immoral." It opens with a flourish of trumpets. As seems only right in a country where the whites have taken from the blacks the fee simple of an entire continent without paying a penny for it, the Government undertakes a large responsibility for the blacks, and engages to provide them with food, clothing, and medical attendance whenever they are destitute or in need. The provisions for indenturing the blacks require that each contract shall be written, shall be duly signed or marked by the black in each case (what they themselves call *millie millie*), and shall be witnessed to by some person uninterested in the contract. The term may be for a variable period of months, but is usually for one year. The squatter (or landholder) gives the blacks no wages (which they would not know what to do with); he does not house them (in a tropical climate they live in the open); but he engages to supply them with abundant food, clothing (which they cannot be got to wear—and their nudity is one of the charges made against him), tobacco, and medical attendance. In return, he commands their labor—as a master commands that of his apprentices, says the Commissioner of Police; as a slaveholder commands that of his slaves, say the opponents of the system.

So far, the provisions are not, on the face of them, inequitable. Much, if not all, will evidently depend on the way they are operated. As we read on, we perceive how abuses may enter. If the indentured black refuses to work, or is sluggish or unruly, he may be haled before a magistrate, who is empowered to have him flogged or imprisoned. Were the magistrate a stipendiary, there would still be great risk of abuse in the exercise of such power in remote districts. But he is usually a mere unpaid and uncontrolled justice of the peace, perhaps himself the employer of the accused black, and in any case an interested member of the squatting fraternity. The character of some of these so-called justices may be judged of from a single group of facts. Of five offenders convicted in a short time of vile and cruel treatment of the blacks, at least two were justices of the peace. That each of the five was fined what Mr. Mantalini would have called "the ridiculous sum" of £5, shows how lightly such offences are punished. Later clauses of the statute permit magistrates compulsorily to indenture youths under age, and thus so far justify Dr. Rentoul when he denounces "the cruel and cold-blooded provisions of the act, with its compulsory indenture of aboriginals and half-castes." All other indenturing is voluntary, at least in name.

The testimony collected by the commissioner seems to show conclusively that the charges made against the system by so many observers have been found proven. Evidently, the landholders will have to be taught by sharp penalties, if other means will not suffice, that the natives cannot be flogged or imprisoned with impunity because they are at times unmanageable on the farm. The law permitting indenturing will have to be repealed. It is a relic of slavery. There will still be trouble with the blacks. It took many hundreds or perhaps thousands of years before the white races became inured to systematic daily toil. It will take a long time before the blacks are broken into regular industry. They cannot yet be dispensed with. In these thinly-populated tropical regions white labor is scarce and dear. It is to the advantage of the black that there should be white men to employ him at outstation work—mustering, tailing, woolwashing, and sometimes fencing, while his *gin* performs domestic services indoors. And the pioneer farmer will find it to *his* advantage to use persuasion a little more, compulsion a good deal less, and violence not at all.

The most damning part of the indictment remains to be stated. The rieving or killing of cattle belonging to a neighboring country has at all times been a fertile source of quarrels between two peoples. It has marked the advance of settlement all over Australia for two or three generations, and it is going on at this moment in Northern Queensland and West Australia. In the earlier days the settlers defended themselves, and retaliated by petty warfare; such matters are now dealt with by the police. Their tender mercies are cruel, and the change to the more civilized procedure has hardly been an improvement for the blacks. The evidence given before Dr. Roth is nothing less than terrible. First, a black tracker (still more pitiless than the white police who accompany him) is employed to ride down the suspected or accused blacks. These are then driven in before the horses, sometimes in the heat of the tropical day, and "at a pace which no human being could keep up with for any

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CARNEGIE BRANCH

distance." The trial is a farce. The police prosecute; they never bring in witnesses for the defence; and the natives are left to defend themselves. They understand no English, and even the interpreter speaks only a few words of "pidgin English." All whom Dr. Roth examined agreed that the blacks do not grasp the nature or realize the gravity of the charge. That is not the worst. A magistrate admitted that he had often felt in dealing with cattle-stealing cases that "there was something of an undercurrent of injustice meted out towards the natives." A constable in charge confessed that "it was a queer country that he lived in, where every [black] mother's son was deemed to be guilty." And a gentleman occupying a responsible commercial position in a remote northern township "had not in three years seen a case of justice." He has "walked out of the Wyndham Court disgusted at what is called British justice." Convicts are at once placed in chains—no handcuffs, but neck-chains—as if they were wild beasts. Thus fettered, they have to work eight hours daily in summer, when work of any kind in a tropical climate is almost impracticable. Sometimes old and ailing when they are brought in, the prisoners not seldom succumb to sunstroke or excessive toil. It is in the interests of the police to multiply captures. They are paid a high sum for the maintenance of the blacks on the way (sometimes a very long way) to court, and yet these are not fed. The blacks, said a magistrate, "are a huge source of revenue to the police." The police state their "revenue" more modestly. "I have brought the black brutes in," one constable confessed, "simply because I can make a few shillings out of them."

A still graver tale is left to be told, though it cannot be fully told here. Some years ago, when he was governor of South Australia, Lord Tennyson denounced in passionate language the misdeeds of the white men who were living in promiscuity and savagery with the black women of the northern territory. The practice has prevailed in many parts of Australia for a hundred years. All along the line of advancing colonization the points of junction of the two races have been stained by miscegenation. It is still one of the ugliest features of the relations between black and white in West Australia. The resident magistrate at Derby was asked if much komboism (the concubinage of white men with gins) went on in his district. "Yes," he answered, "a tremendous lot is going on." Rapes of black Helens are frequent, and the black Menelaus has as yet no redress. In one case, however, a white Paris met with his deserts. He was fined £5. It is not stated that he restored his Helen. On the pearling coast in the far north another kind of miscegenation prevails. A constable testified that there was "a great deal of prostitution going on" between the gins and the Malay and other Asiatic pearling crews, "and if no person were there to protect the natives, it would be terrible." These and similar revelations are at last arousing the sluggish Australian conscience. The churches are moving, and their joint council has reprobated the atrocities. The Government is beginning to take action. The chief of the Westralian police has been suspended. In a few weeks or months at latest the Legislature will be asked to enact remedial laws. J. C.

Correspondence.

THE ALLUSIONS IN "LOTHAIR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An edition of Disraeli's novels has been brought out by an American firm with a key to the personal allusions officially furnished by the late Lord Rowton, Disraeli's secretary and literary executor. Probably I am the last survivor of the set, so that, in saying a word about my own case, I may be helping to clear the memories of some of the rest.

The names generally are pseudonyms. Canning is "Mr. Charlatan Gas"; Dickens is "Mr. Gushy"; Bright is "Jawster Sharp," but I am plainly designated as the "Oxford Professor." I am described as "a social parasite," overpowered at finding myself in company with a lord. This was not published when I was in England, where I may safely say it would have fallen flat or recoiled. It was published when I was in the United States, where I was unknown and the slander, stamped with Disraeli's name, might tell. Once only had I met Disraeli. I never interchanged a word with him. I lived in a circle entirely different from his, and one in which, if there were fewer high titles, there were at least as many great names.

I am described as being brought to the New World by dreams of wild vanity which I thought the New World could alone realize. I had settled down for life on my professorship at Oxford, and had built a house there. I was called away and obliged to resign my chair by a sad domestic duty, in the performance of which I had to spend a year and a half. Then, having no special employment, and being much in need of change, I gladly accepted the invitation of Mr. Andrew White to help him in the foundation of Cornell University for the special benefit of poor students. Having lectured at Cornell for two years, I came to reside with the branches of my family settled before me in Canada.

It happened that, at the time of my leaving England, I had before me an offer of the nomination of my party for a Parliamentary constituency in which it had a sure majority. I had a similar overture after settling here. Had I ever desired it, a political career was open.

Intercourse with European patriots such as Garibaldi and Mazzini I do not think it necessary to excuse. I will not shelter myself under Disraeli's "Revolutionary Epick." Mazzini, let me say in passing, assured me that he had never taken part in an assassination plot.

Disraeli twice attacked me very personally in the House of Commons. On the first occasion it was for advocating the cession of the Ionian Islands to Greece. He charged me with wanting to break up the Empire. We now know that he told Lord Malmesbury in confidence that the colonies were millstones round the neck of England; and this language, his great friend Sir W. Gregory, tells us, he held in private to the end of his life. His second attack was for advocating the abolition of entail.

This practice of libelling under color of fiction surely is cowardly and mean. It may lend impunity to the vilest slander. Generally recognized as the allusion may be, the person traduced, if a pseudonym is used, cannot right himself without seeming to put the cap on his own head.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, April 7, 1905.

A NAVAL PARALLEL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Just a century ago two great fleets were manœuvring in preparation for one of the greatest naval battles ever fought. On April 4, 1805, Nelson was informed of the sailing of the Toulon fleet commanded by Villeneuve. Believing it to be bound for Egypt, he patrolled the Mediterranean Sea between Sardinia and the African coast. Villeneuve, on the contrary, was carrying out Napoleon's plan of campaign to rendezvous at Martinique with Missiessy, who, however, had sailed back to Europe from the West Indies on the very day Villeneuve eluded Nelson and escaped from Toulon. To the West Indies Nelson followed Villeneuve in May. On June 4 the English fleet was at Barbados, and Villeneuve was only two hundred miles away at Martinique. They never approached more closely until the eve of the fateful 21st of October. Villeneuve recrossed the Atlantic, but failed to make the combination planned by Napoleon, as a precedent to the naval control of the English Channel, while he invaded England. Instead, he retreated to Cadiz, and was watched by Collingwood during the summer months, while Napoleon, foiled in his hopes of invading England by the misadventures of his fleets at sea, was conducting the great Austerlitz campaign on land.

Villeneuve, peremptorily ordered by the Emperor to take the risk of a naval engagement, left Cadiz on October 19, with the combined French and Spanish fleets, to enter the Mediterranean. Nelson, who had just taken command of Collingwood's squadron, faced him off Trafalgar, and on the 21st the deathblow was struck at Napoleon's power.

The world has waited a century, for during the interval no great naval engagement by two powerful fleets has been fought. There have been brilliant naval duels and examples of magnificent target practice, and fights between weak or small fleets, such as that of Navarino; but, under the altered conditions which steam and electricity have brought about, no two great fleets have met and been manœuvred in the open sea, so as to demonstrate the extent to which machinery can replace, in naval warfare, human skill, human genius, and human courage. The winds and the tides will not control the plan of a future naval battle, and therefore skilful seamanship will not play as important a part as formerly. But there will be scope on the part of the admirals for higher generalship in manœuvring their ships than even the commanders of land forces must display in disposing of and moving their battalions.

The issue of the impending battle in the Far East may be as momentous as was that of Trafalgar itself. It may even be more so, for, if Japan crushes or scatters the Russian fleet, a new naval Power of

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the first magnitude will be created, whereas the struggle between France and England was a contest between Powers of equal strength who had been rivals for centuries.

D.

New York, April 12, 1905.

THE SCRUTINY OF CHARITABLE GIFTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may interest some of your readers to know that the objection to Mr. Rockefeller's gift to missions has a curious parallel in the action of no less worldly a body than the New York City Council. I quote from the record, which is self-explanatory:

"At a meeting of the Common Council, held in the city of New York, at the City Hall, on Friday, the 14th of October, 1785, present James Duane, mayor, Richard Varick, recorder, etc., etc., 'Whereas, it has been represented to this board in behalf of Mr. Lawrence Embree, one of the commissioners of the alms-house, that the company of comedians in this city, some time since, presented him with forty pounds for the use of the poor; that as he disapproved of a donation so circumstanced, he thought it his duty to suffer it to be deposited with him until the sense of the magistrates concerning the same could be obtained.' Whereupon the board came to the following resolutions:

"That it appears that the play-house was opened by said comedians without license or permission of the civil authority; which in the opinion of this board is a thing unprecedented and offensive. That while so great part of this city still lies in ruins, and many of the citizens continue to be pressed with the distresses brought on them in consequence of the late war, there is a loud call for industry and economy; and it would in a particular manner be unjustifiable in this corporation to countenance enticing and expensive amusements; that among these a play-house, however regulated, must be numbered, when under no restraint it may prove a fruitful source of dissipation, immorality, and vice: That the acceptance of the said donation by the order of this board might authorize a conclusion that they approved of the opening of said theatre, and that therefore it be and it is hereby recommended to Mr. Embree to return the same to the person from whom he received it."

William Dunlap, from whose 'History of the American Theatre' (published in 1832) I take this extract, adds (pp. 58, 59) that "a few days after, a writer in *Oswald's Journal* ironically praises the wisdom of the city magistrates for discountenancing the theatre, and preferring the licensing tipplingshops, they being harmless and yielding a revenue unpolluted by its source."

William J. Neidig.

Chicago, April 9, 1905.

THE HARVARD-TECHNOLOGY MERGER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letters that have appeared in the last two numbers of the *Nation* on the proposed Harvard-Technology merger have failed to explain the full intent of this arrangement, as well as one of its inevitable consequences. "Harvard A.B." says that Harvard will get nothing out of it. Is this really the case?

At the outset it should be said that it is generally believed that the Harvard Corporation favors the plan of merger, although it is certain that it has not yet officially adopted it. Furthermore, as "Technology S.B." believes, it is quite possible that the effective, though veiled, initiative in this matter of merger has really come from that body, although in the active promotion of the idea it has been found convenient to enlist the services of a representative of the other side. Also it is true that, on its face, this plan not only seems to give everything to the Institute, but appears extremely disadvantageous to Harvard in many ways, and particularly in the following:

First, it would sacrifice a large, flourishing, and useful department of the University, and alienate a great bequest.

Secondly, it would require the University to break faith with the teachers of the Lawrence Scientific School.

Thirdly, if it would not involve an actual breach of faith with benefactors of the University, it would undeniably require the Harvard Corporation to reverse its traditional policy towards bequests. The McKay gift would have to be dealt with not in a frank and scrupulous spirit, but more nearly in the spirit of the man whose standard of moral obligation is to avoid being sued and to keep out of jail.

These are very grave objections to the plan of merger as proposed. If it is true that this plan is being seriously considered, is it credible that the respectable and intelligent doctors, lawyers, and bankers who, with President Eliot, constitute the Harvard Corporation, would face these consequences if they were not inclined to believe that Harvard University would gain more than it would lose by the transaction?

What is the gain to be expected? Primarily, it is neither the doubtful economy which uninformed persons might predict from union, nor any vague advantage to the community or to technical education from doing away with so-called competition. While these pretexts have been urged in favor of the merger, they could have only collateral weight with the Harvard Corporation, who are not charged with the general oversight of technical education in the community or in the commonwealth. What is really to be expected is nothing less than the ultimate absorption of the Institute as a teaching body in Harvard University, with all the gain resulting from the exchange of a scientific school of 600 students for one of 1,600. To prove that the plan of merger is intended to bring about this result, no further evidence is needed than the provision for establishing the Institute in a new location alongside the Cambridge departments of Harvard. Physical propinquity is made the *sine quâ non* of the agreement. If the intention of the merger were merely to avoid duplication and competition, and to promote economy through the abolition of the Lawrence Scientific School and the transfer of its teachers and funds, these objects could be as well attained with the Institute in its present location or in a new one in Jamaica Plain. Furthermore, the independence of the Institute, although provided for at the beginning, is not safeguarded for a single year, and there is no security whatever against a closer union whenever it shall seem expedient. Is it not, then, entirely clear that the attraction of the plan for the Corporation must lie in the idea that Lazarus, made into a Dives and planted at the gates of Paradise, would before long clamor for a place in Abraham's bosom?

And who can doubt that this would be the final result? The opposition to complete absorption on the part of the faculty of the Institute would naturally die away with time and with judicious appointments to vacancies. The acidity of the older graduates of the Institute would first be diluted and finally neutralized by the flood of young graduates, educated under mellower conditions and under the Harvard spell. It might take a generation, but, finally and inevitably, and in the most natural way in the world, complete absorption would have to come about.

But is it worth the price? As men of affairs, they are probably greatly attracted by this opportunity for a Diomedic exchange, but, before irrevocably committing themselves to the venture, the Harvard Corporation may be relied on to give the fullest consideration to all its drawbacks. For example, they will consider its effect on technical instruction within the University, giving due weight to the fact that the Lawrence School is almost at the point where it needs only money to enable it to become a Graduate School of Applied Science, while the Institute could not reach this point for years—that is to say, not until its requirements for admission were greatly increased. They will consider, also, that the merged institution would begin its career under a heavy handicap—without morale, cohesion, or confidence in its head. And especially they may be depended on to weigh most carefully the consequences of juggling or appearing to juggle with the McKay bequest, forgetting neither the example set to the young men under their charge, nor the effect on future benefactors of the University. "Harvard A.B." may confidently be assured that the Corporation do not need to be told that the benefactor is the most timid of investors, and that their own duty as trustees, perhaps their first duty, is to do nothing that might divert from Harvard any part of the stream of gifts which is now pouring into it.

Harvard Graduate.

DEGREES FOR CAMBRIDGE WOMEN FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Council of Newnham College have sent out a circular letter to their alumnæ informing them that Trinity College, University of Dublin, offers degrees to those students of Newnham and Girton who have passed degree examinations of the University of Cambridge. Three students of Newnham College at once availed themselves of the opportunity and became graduates of Trinity College, Dublin, on the first occasion at which it was possible, in 1904. As the offer is open to Cambridge women until 1907 only, and is coincident with the opening of the degrees of Trinity College to women, it looks much like a bid from Dublin for women students.

The report of Newnham College for the year 1904 incidentally furnishes a striking comment on the action of the University of Dublin. The two largest colleges for men in Cambridge, both mediæval foundations, are Trinity and St. John's. Newnham College reported 168 students in 1904; its students have been admitted to Tripos examinations, without degrees, since 1881, just twenty-three years. But in the number of students classed in Triposes for 1904, Newnham College stood third in the whole University. Trinity College secured 99

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honors, St. John's, 74; out of Newnham's 168 students, 75, or nearly one-half, went in for honors, and 72 obtained honors. Of first class honors, the proportions for the three leading colleges read, mathematically, Trinity, one-fourth plus; St. John's and Newnham, one-fifth minus.

It is natural that in an old institution the advance of new ideas should be slow and their development be accompanied by anomalies and inconsistencies. But no institution can lead in the educational world and at the same time pursue a policy which turns from its own door to another's a considerable and influential body of its students. We hear much of the poverty of the two oldest English universities. Is it not partly poverty of spirit, an inability to meet and answer the practical questions of modern education in a practical way?

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

SMITH COLLEGE, April 15, 1905.

Notes.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly publish 'On Tybee Knoll,' by James B. Connolly.

A second edition of Miss Calkins's 'Introduction to Psychology' has been called for, and has now appeared. The special point of view adopted in this book will be further defended by the author in a small volume to be brought out by Veit & Co., Leipzig, under the title, 'Der doppelte Standpunkt in der Psychologie.'

We receive from Ginn & Co. a curiously offhand and chatty book upon one of the most difficult subjects known to the archæologist. 'The Greek Painter's Art,' by Irene Weir, director of art instruction at Brookline, Mass., might fairly be called amateurish by any one to whom "amateur" is not necessarily a term of reproach. The first hundred pages tell how a party of seven travelled by Brindisi and Corfu to Olympia, Delphi, Corinth, Mykenæ, and Epidaurus, and then to Athens. About forty half-tones illustrate this Introduction, and of these a moiety may deal with works of art, buildings, and sculpture, the rest with bits of scenery. Then, with page 103, begins "A Brief History of Greek Painting," divided into five chapters, and the reader should stop a moment and think what this means. When Sir Charles Eastlake had collected a great mass of material in his special subject, he published it as 'Materials for the History of Oil Painting'; and the only reason why no book with a similar title has been devoted to the painting of the ancient Greeks is that the "materials" do not exist. The most that can be done is to collect a number of detached facts, some of which seem to contradict one another; or to present a paper on the probable relation of Hellenistic bas-reliefs to paintings, or one about the probable derivation of Pompeian wall pictures from those of Greece proper. No information about the artistic character of Greek work, coloring, drawing, notions of proportion, conceptions of pictorial design, is to be obtained from classical writers. Not one fragment of Greek pictorial work in color remains to us. The inferences from vase-painting and mosaics are most risky. We need only add that the illustrations are as numerous, proportionally, in the "History" as in the "Introduction," that they are well chosen and interesting, and that nearly all are photographic.

'Out of Bondage' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the title of a collection of tales and sketches by the late Rowland E. Robinson. Mr. Robinson was of Quaker stock, and his home in Vermont was a station on the Underground Railroad; the tale which gives its title to the book has for its subject the escape of a slave. The contact of Yankee and French Canadian in the borderland of Lake Champlain produced social peculiarities which no one has illustrated with a more delicate touch than Mr. Robinson, and the very rusticity of his humor increases the verisimilitude of his portrait.

John A. Cipperly's 'Labor Laws and Decisions of the State of New York' (Albany: Banks & Co.) is a useful compilation, which includes statutes as well as cases. Besides its value for purposes of reference, it shows almost at a glance what has been done in this State for "Labor," and how far we have advanced (or fallen away) from a state of society in which the laborer shifts for himself. On paper our laws are very paternal, and if the laborer is not protected against the employer, it is not the fault of the legislature. How many people know that no free-born toiler in a factory can be deprived of a full sixty minutes for his noonday meal, *except by permission of the Commissioner of Labor?* But this is only an odd illustration of the length to which regulation has gone. At every turn there is some command or inhibition designed to guard the laborer against the dangers of his calling. Fire escapes must be provided, ventilation secured, cleanliness guaranteed, contagion made impossible, scaffolding sufficiently strong to bear his weight provided. At every point there is inspection. It is here, of course, that the weakness of the system is seen. Unless paternalism is genuine, the inspector may need inspection, and protection be required against the protector. But old-fashioned suggestions relating to the province of Government have little weight with a modern democratic legislature. The system, rigidly enforced, would be a benevolent despotism; means are found with us to temper it, as inspectors soon learn.

It is not quite clear why Prof. Robinson Ellis publishes his recent pamphlet on 'Catullus in the XIVth Century' (H. Frowde). It is hardly of the quality of a public lecture, nor is it designated as such. On the other hand, there is not enough new material or suggestion in it to make it a marked contribution to knowledge. Mr. Ellis calls attention once more to the attempts that have been made to unravel the enigma of the epigram by Campesani appended to the Codex Sangermanensis, mentioning, among other conjectures, that of Mr. Falconer Madan, who thinks the mysterious discoverer of Catullus may be Francesco Accorsi, and that of Sir E. M. Thompson, who thinks some such name as Strada may be shadowed forth by the periphrasis of the fourth verse. Mr. Ellis himself suggests the possibility of an allusion to Avignon (*Avena*) in *a calamis*, in which case Francis of Avignon would be the great Petrarch himself. But if Petrarch had in reality discovered Catullus, it is not likely that we should be without any other reference to the fact than that contained in Campesani's puzzle; and Mr. Ellis is content with the conclusion that the riddle is yet unread. In this connection may be mentioned the note by Dr. Henry Bradley, in a recent number of the *Athenæum*, who thinks the accepted idea that *Francia* points to the name Francesco is probably wrong, and that a French word for *calamus* is meant. He would suggest Roselli, or Rosello (from *rosel*, now *roseau*), accepting for the surname Strada, or, preferably, Lachmann's Notapassanti, or some word of similar meaning, which may have been a *signum* for Roselli, instead of a true surname to Rosello. Mr. Ellis repeats his suggestion, made to the Oxford Philological Society in 1903, that the long-legged bird which figures so often in Codex O may date from an actual papyrus archetype. He then proceeds to point out indications of the use of a complete MS. of Catullus by the compilers of two florilegia of the fourteenth century, by Albertino Mussato (1261-1329) and by Petrarch. In the earlier of these matters the argument is inconclusive, and, as regards Petrarch, Mr. Ellis depends mainly upon the well-known work of De Nolhac.

The predominance of the prefix *re-* helps to make the thin fascicle for April 1 of the Oxford English Dictionary (Ree-Reign) exceptionally devoid of matter inviting comment. A word blest with three spellings and with two stresses, equally reputable, is Referrible (1596), Referable (1646), Referrable (1661). Another typical English case of go as you please is presented in Reflection, Reflexion. Here Mr. Craigie tells us that "the etymological spelling with *x* is the earliest [in Chaucer, 1384, etc.], and is still common in scientific use, perhaps through its connexion [in the United States, rather connection] with *reflex*; in the general senses the influence of the verb has made the form with *ct* the prevailing one." It is noticeable that Continental usage has not affected English so far as to make "The Reform" an allowable synonym for "The Reformation." No writer seems to have ventured it. To that historical period belongs the verb Refrigerate (which is antedated by more than a century by the participial adjective having the same form). The earliest citation for the verb is 1534, and is from Sir Thomas More's 'Dyalogue of Comfort against Tribulation,' composed in the Tower. Now the participle *refrigerata* is glossed in Erasmus's 'Colloquies' ("Uxor Mempsigamus"), as if a neologism, and this conjunction of Englishman and Dutchman, bosom friends, recalls afresh Samuel Daniel's diatribe, in his 'Defence of Ryme': "Erasmus, Rewclin [Reuchlin], and Moore brought no more wisdome into the world with all their new revived words than we finde was before."

Prof. D. B. Macdonald's illuminating discourse on the "Moral Education of the Young among Muslims," delivered under the auspices of the Philadelphia Society for Ethical Culture, is printed in the April number of the *International Journal of Ethics*. It shows forcibly how the Society's aim—"to advance the ethical training of the young in independence of any definite theological instruction"—runs counter to Muslim orthodoxy as an impious absurdity. Christian orthodoxy is, of course, heavily committed to the same view; yet we can but think that this class will read Profes-

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sor Macdonald's exposition with more disturbance on account of resemblances than of differences in Muslim and Christian pedagogy. Is this (from al-Ghazzālī), for example, less admirable in Muslim than in Christian training?—"So, first, is the committing [of the creed] to memory; then belief and certainty and acceptance. That is what results in a boy without proof; it is by the grace of God upon the heart of man that He opens him in earliest childhood to faith without need of evidence or proof. How can that be denied, seeing that all the creeds of the mass of the people, in their beginnings, are simple imitation and acceptance of authority purely?"

The *Genealogical Magazine* for April (Boston: Eben Putnam) contains some weighty censure, by the editor-publisher, of the mode in which the vital records of Massachusetts are being printed under the laudable act of 1902, "to provide for the preservation of town records of births, marriages, and deaths previous to 1850." Up to date, the Commonwealth has accepted forty-one volumes of vital records, representing forty towns—to the profit, it is said, of the parties printing them, but this is a small matter in comparison with the mode adopted. One form of arrangement, says Mr. Putnam, has been followed, but it "does not provide for all the information which the records contain," as he convincingly proves. Hence it is not safe to dispense with independent examination of the originals, to which, for the searcher's vexation, there are no references in the several printed editions. Finally, the attesting of the transcripts has been almost universally disregarded.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March contains a report of a recent scientific expedition to Figuig, an oasis on the eastern frontier of Morocco. After treating of its physical features, its mineral resources, chiefly lead and copper, its vegetation and inhabitants, the writer, M. Émile Gautier of Algiers, draws attention to the fact that a few years ago such an expedition would have been impossible, because of the hostility of the people to the French. Now, through the establishment of posts and the extension of the railway from Oran, the warlike nomads have retired to the desert, and the region is being rapidly settled and developed by peaceful agriculturists. M. Gautier believes that the whole of Morocco could be speedily brought into the same condition at small expense and without bloodshed, by the creation of a native police force, serving under the Sultan's flag, but officered by Frenchmen. M. B. Auerbach states that the census of the German Empire for 1900 shows a growth, practically wholly by the excess of births over deaths, greater than that of any other European State. During the preceding decade the annual emigration averaged 120,000, but in 1902 it had fallen to 32,000. The religious statistics reveal the surprising fact that there are 222 distinct sects, and also that in the last thirty years the percentage of Protestants has increased slightly and that of the Roman Catholics has decreased. There are twenty-two languages and dialects, but the number of those speaking a foreign tongue is very small, and rapidly diminishing. Other articles are an extended review of M. Lacroix's report on the eruptions of Mont Pelée, and an illustrated sketch of the physical geography of the island of Eubœa.

The philosophical faculty of the University of Vienna has pronounced, by a vote of forty to ten, in favor of making women eligible to professorships, and it is expected that the Ministry of Public Instruction will authorize the carrying out of their views. The movement in this direction has been largely brought about by Prof. Friedrich Jodl, who is otherwise well known as a promoter of the interests of women. Professor Jodl is the author of a book on Psychology which is easily among the most important general treatments of the subject; he has also the characteristic of being unique among German professors in his acquaintance with, and recognition of the importance of, the work of American psychologists. The movement recently instituted in the Association of College Alumnæ for adding to the number of professorships accessible to women will need to be pushed forward rapidly, if Germany is not to leave this country quite in the rear in this regard.

The *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen announces the death, on March 15, of the Danish novelist, Fru Amalie Skram, in her fifty-eighth year. Fru Skram belonged to the extreme school of Scandinavian naturalism, and her choice of this form of artistic expression was closely related to her whole attitude towards life. Even those who least approve of her methods must admit the perfect sincerity of this foremost of the Danish women writers of to-day. Among her works, all of which show an absolute mastery of style, may be mentioned 'Betrayed,' 'Lucie,' and the series of three novels bearing the untranslatable title 'Hellemyrsfolket.'

In view of the critical state of the Scandinavian Union, special interest attaches to the recent publication of a photographic reproduction of the Norwegian Constitution of 1814.

We are glad to receive from F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, a large imperial photograph of the late Theodore Thomas—a front view of head and bust, and a most excellent likeness. It is sure of acceptance wherever this great conductor was honored, and is worthy to hang in any music room.

—The first volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Journals of the Continental Congress' (Washington) is a notable example of the sumptuous bookmaking of which the Government Printing-Office is capable. The series, which will extend to fourteen or fifteen volumes and occupy five or six years in publication, promises high usefulness to the student of American history. The original journals, as is well known, have never been printed in full; the contemporaneous issues, on which later editions were based, comprising such parts of the record only as it was deemed advisable to publish at the time. For the present edition, Mr. Ford has undertaken not merely to reproduce the original manuscript of the journals, but also to complete or supplement the entries by data from other sources. A comparison of the present volume, covering the period of the first Continental Congress of 1774, with the printed copies does not show many additions to the text; the insertion of Galloway's motion and plan, September 28, which the Congress repudiated and ordered stricken from the journal, being the most important. Mr. Ford's method of editing is not, in certain details, impeccable. If one may judge from a comparison of his printed text with the facsimile page of the manuscript facing page 13, he has felt free to make minor alterations in the manuscript and to supply or modernize the punctuation. The entry, "The Congress met according to adjournment," under date of October 17, is omitted from the printed text (p. 74). The source of the admirable facsimile, in three sheets, of the "Association" is not indicated, nor of the occasional bracketed additions to the text. The printed signatures to the petition to the king (p. 121) show minor variations from the facsimile inserted in the text. The interesting memoranda of Samuel Ward, a delegate from Rhode Island, several times cited in the footnotes, are not located. It would seem to be worth while, also, to indicate the important variants in printed copies of the journals, such, for example, as "Colonel" for "Mr." Folsom (p. 28) in the edition of 1777, and the considerable verbal changes found on pages 62, 63, 74, 75, 81, 90, 101-105, and 113 of the present volume. A third printed copy of the "Association," with the signatures of the members—apparently the only one known besides the two referred to in the note on page 81—is in the Rhode Island Historical Society, from whose collections some additions could also be made to Mr. Ford's bibliography. None of these defects is of the first magnitude, or detracts seriously from the high value of Mr. Ford's editorial work. We mention them because of the hope that we are to have from his hands a thoroughly critical variorum edition of the journals.

—Parts I. and II. of a book on old Edinburgh come from William J. Hay of Edinburgh, whose address is "John Knox's House." The page is 11x15 inches. There are in each number three plates, with a sheet of text respectively, and it is stated that there will be about sixteen parts. The book is entitled 'Old Houses in Edinburgh'; the drawings are by Bruce J. Home. The introduction, which is as brief as a preface, is signed by G. Baldwin Brown, and there is a curious tone of detachment observed in it, which enables Mr. Brown to praise Mr. Home in a very unreserved fashion. "The present publication is based upon a competent structural knowledge of the buildings it illustrates"—such is one clause of this introduction, and the remainder of it is conceived in the same spirit. Now, as for the drawings themselves, they require consideration before even the practised student of books on old architecture can speak his mind about them freely. The plates are photographic, and indeed are announced as being collotypes—a term which is hardly used in America, but which is equivalent to gelatine plates, or nearly so. They have been made from drawings which are singularly conceived—without attempt at effect, in black and white, without strong shadows, without marked difference between the lighted and the shaded surfaces, without affectation of relief and projection. They are evidently calm settings down of the conditions of the old buildings, each on the day when it was before the artist's eye, when his drawing-board was set up in the little close in front of it.

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Have they been drawn by the aid of the camera lucida? At all events, here is a mine of wealth for a student of that picturesqueness which comes of almost unconscious building, with no more architectural sense than that which would provide a centrepiece in a steep roof, or some carefully moulded coping along the slopes of a dormer window. Picturesqueness, not of the highly wrought Gothic with pointed windows and steep gables, all carefully moulded according to the rules of the art, but coming of itself as the unwatched mason, building his high stone walls, left windows where they seemed to be required—that is the evident purpose and the result of the collection before us.

—We record with pleasure the appearance of Father Dinneen's 'Irish-English Dictionary,' published by the Irish Texts Society. It will be a welcome resource to students of modern Irish, who have had to make shift hitherto with very imperfect lexicographical aids. O'Reilly's Dictionary, the only one which has been easily obtainable, fails to take account of a large part of the living vocabulary, and is an utterly uncritical compilation besides, representing no particular stage of the language and containing words that probably never existed in any stage of it. Father Dinneen, being himself a native speaker, has been chiefly concerned with the living tongue, and has undertaken to explain "the main stream of words, idioms, and forms that constitute the modern Irish language." We believe he has accomplished this object creditably. In addition to his own traditional acquaintance with Irish, Father Dinneen has been able to turn to account his experience as editor of a number of modern poets; and he has made use of earlier lexicographical materials, both printed and unprinted. He has also been supplied by collectors with lists of words in local use to-day in various parts of Ireland. He is probably justified in claiming that his book contains more of the words and expressions in present or recent use than any Irish dictionary yet published. The number of entries, as we calculate them roughly, cannot be far from 30,000. It is in no spirit of censure, then, that we point out that there still remain many modern Irish words which Father Dinneen has not recorded. We have tested his dictionary hastily by a few poems and folk-tales selected at random from the literature of the last three centuries, and in nearly every instance we have come upon words not noted in its pages. Even in Father Dinneen's own editions of Irish poets, the special glossaries contain some words not included in his dictionary; and we have found others registered in O'Reilly, and known to us to occur in modern texts. It was inevitable that the work should be incomplete, in view of the short time and limited assistance at the editor's disposal. Many omissions, too, are doubtless attributable to the editor's deliberate method, for it appears from his preface that he did not mean to register everything, but rejected words not deemed to be in sufficiently good use. What he attempted was not a complete thesaurus of the language, but a selected vocabulary, genuine in character and ample for the reader's ordinary needs. There still remains work enough for future makers of Irish dictionaries to do, and those who come after Father Dinneen will not be reduced to "gleaning here and there."

—We have also received from the Irish Texts Society the fifth volume of its regular series of publications, an edition and translation by Mr. Patrick M. MacSweeney of the 'Caithreimh Conghail Cláiringhnigh' (The Martial Career of Conghal Cláiringhneach). The story is of considerable interest for both form and matter. It is preserved in a manuscript of the seventeenth century, and the language, which, in the light of present information, can be only roughly dated, belongs to the period of transition from Middle to Modern Irish. But part of the material probably comes down in substance from early Middle Irish times, and one episode has been plausibly connected with a lost saga mentioned by title in the "Book of Leinster." The critical analysis of the existing tale offers a pretty problem which Mr. MacSweeney discusses at length in his introduction. Stylistically considered, the tale is a good example of finished Irish narrative, composed in the regular form of mixed prose and verse characteristic of the earlier sagas. The editor's work is done with care and in a scholarly spirit. His tabular analysis of the verbal forms will be of assistance to future investigators in historical grammar; and the same scholars will commend him for not having changed the spellings and initial mutations of his manuscript to make them conform with present usage. He thinks it necessary to defend himself for this procedure, but we should have been glad to see him still more conservative. Many spellings are doubtless inaccurate or insignificant, as he concedes; but it is surely desirable not to destroy or conceal manuscript evidence, such as it is, with regard to the practice of the seventeenth century, in these uncertain matters. Mr. MacSweeney's running commentary in footnotes is uneven in value. Many notes are taken up, quite properly, with explaining familiar grammatical forms for the benefit of Gaelic readers without philological training. From others Celtic scholars will derive useful information about modern usage. But occasionally the editor's remarks are very inadequate. Thus, on page 20, Prof. Osborn Bergin is said to have pointed out to the editor "the parallelism between the position of the French pronoun object and the Irish infixed pronoun." This is a commonplace of grammatical information, and was long ago discussed by M. Henri Gaidoz (*Revue Celtique*, vi., 86 ff.), with illustrations from Latin as well as from French.

—Walt Whitman's 'Diary in Canada' and 'American Primer' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) seem at the first blush rather memorial volumes than books. The first is edited, with "extracts from other of his diaries and literary note-books," by William Sloane Kennedy; the second, "with facsimiles of the original manuscript," by Horace Traubel. There are also two good portraits. Piety could hardly go farther, for everything, however trivial, is given the benefit of the doubt. The volumes inevitably recall Hawthorne's note-books (they are mainly a mass of scraps and disjointed notes), with the difference that they are rather vociferous and exuberant than significant or pregnant with suggestions. Of the two, the Primer is the more important, because Whitman seems to have had an idea at one time of publishing it. He adds, however, that "the best of the Primer stuff" has no doubt "leaked into" his other work; and this strikes us as a very good description of what happened. The Primer is a sort of prose rhapsody on Words, of which it is notorious that Whitman was fond. Ideas he did not care much for, but words, good, bad, and indifferent, filled him with delight. He exults in the English language; he likes short nicknames—Tom, Bill, Jack; he likes good words and bad words, words used by clergymen, literati, lawyers, gamblers, thieves, and prostitutes; in short, he likes any kind of word, and the notion of an absolutely unexpurgated dictionary fills his cup of pleasure. In this Primer the later Whitman is adumbrated very effectively, and for lovers of his perfected works the volumes have of course an interest which others will fail to find.

—"As the exhibition recently opened by the New York Water Color Club in London," writes a correspondent from that metropolis, "is the first it has held in England, it is a matter of regret that more care was not taken to attract attention to it in the right way. For those who know nothing of London, it probably seems that if once a Bond Street gallery is secured, an exhibition may then be left to take care of itself. But there are Bond Street galleries and Bond Street galleries, and a good deal depends upon which is chosen, as well as upon the way in which the show is announced—facts which American after American, coming to London for the first time, has failed to grasp. The New York Water Color Club has gone to the Modern Gallery, which, fortunately for the members, has just moved into new premises where, at least, the work exhibited can be seen. But even its most devoted patrons can hardly claim for it the first rank among the minor galleries in London. Nor has the exhibition been announced as it should. There are such innumerable little shows in London that advertisement—and not merely the advertisement you pay for at so much a line—is absolutely necessary. This the club has not had, and the result is that the exhibition is passing almost unnoticed. Again, the drawings have not been well hung. Who is responsible for the hanging, I cannot say, but I doubt if it was any one who knew much about American art and artists, for I found Mr. La Farge's two little studies skied, while the drawings that really have the most individuality and interest, Mr. Cooper's "Skyscrapers," are not given the prominence they deserve. These are by far the best things in the exhibition. If, as yet, nothing has been sold, I think it should be pointed out that this, no doubt, is largely due to prices that seem unduly high in London."

THE WARS OF RELIGION.

The Wars of Religion. (The Cambridge Modern History; planned by the late Lord Acton; edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D., G. W. Prothero, Litt.D., Stanley Leathes, M.A.) Volume III. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

The great work of the Cambridge Modern History, late in starting, now advances with a steady and regular pace which

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atones for the former delay and is highly creditable to the editors, as any one will know who has had experience in trying to drive a large team of contributors, some of whom are pretty certain to lag behind the others. The present volume, the third in order, though the fifth to appear, covers very nearly a century, from A. D. 1525 to A. D. 1621, overlapping at the earlier point some of the chapters of the last preceding Volume II. It consists of twenty-two chapters, written by sixteen authors, more than half of whom appear in the work for the first time. Two, and two among the best, have unhappily quitted this world since they prepared their respective chapters, viz., Prof. Samuel R. Gardiner and Mr. T. G. Law of Edinburgh. In point of scientific and literary excellence, Volume III. is distinctly better than the volumes on the United States and the French Revolution, and, we think, equal to the first two volumes, which treat of the Renaissance and the Reformation, although no chapter in the present volume is quite as striking as Principal Lindsay's upon Luther in Volume II.

The general character of those volumes reappears here. Different as the writers are in some respects, they all aim at a plain, direct, lucid narrative rather than at any graces of style or picturesquely dramatic handling of their matter. Some are, however, plainer than others. Mr. Butler describes the struggle, often intermitted and often renewed, between the Roman Catholics and the Huguenots in France from 1562 to 1593, with a care and clearness which will earn the praise of those who know the difficulties. But he gives us nothing but narrative, seldom interposing any remark to indicate the views he must have formed upon the characters of the actors and the general causes which were at work. This is the tendency of most of the contributors, though Dr. Ward, in his excellent chapters on the Emperors Maximilian the Second and Rudolf the Second, sometimes pauses to note the forces that governed events and to touch upon the qualities of leading men; and Mr. Hume allows himself some picturesque details in his account of Philip II. The period is full of interesting personalities. Of Elizabeth of England and Mary of Scotland there is no need to speak, for no personalities in history have given rise to more controversy. But we have also Henry IV. of France and Catherine de' Medici; we have the Emperors Charles the Fifth, Ferdinand the First, and his son Maximilian; we have William of Orange (the Silent), Margaret of Parma, Granvelle and the Duke of Alva; we have Stephen Báthory of Transylvania and Poland. These are all well handled. But the most effective characterization, the figure which is made to stand out most clearly and sharply, is Pope Sixtus the Fifth. Count Ugo Balzani's chapter upon this most remarkable of the post-mediæval Popes is one of the best in the volume, giving, within the compass of thirty-six pages, a vigorous and lifelike picture of an extraordinary practical genius, who left his impress alike upon the city of Rome, upon the Church, and upon his secular dominions. Nor must the admirable chapter of Mr. Law upon Mary of Scotland pass unnoticed. It is probably only one-tenth in extent of the part of Mr. Andrew Lang's recent History of Scotland devoted to this inexhaustibly interesting person, whose fortunes have produced almost as much poetry as controversy. But it brings out the salient facts more clearly and broadly than Mr. Lang has done, and it is more impartial. Mr. Law's view of Mary's conduct will commend itself to dispassionate minds. He hesitates to pronounce upon the vexed question of the Casket Letters, apparently inclining to the view that they were really written by the Queen, but subsequently tampered with so as to have become, in the shape in which they were presented to Elizabeth's commissioners at York, partially forgeries. His account of the plots against Elizabeth's life as well as crown, to which Mary was a party, goes far to justify her execution, distasteful as that is to modern notions, and goes some little way to justify the apparently unfilial behavior of her son, King James the Sixth of Scotland.

The volume closes with an important chapter on "Political Thought in the Sixteenth Century," important because that century, or rather the century and a half which followed the great outbreak of religious strife, has been the most fertile and determinative period in the sphere of political thinking that the world has seen. It gathered up all that the ancient world and the Middle Ages had produced. It poured the old wine into new bottles, and added much new wine of its own. The so-called "Principles of 1789," as well as the principles of the Declaration of Independence, are really present, though not always explicit, in the controversialists of the Reformation and post-Reformation age. Professor Figgis, who writes this chapter, sees the magnitude of his subject, grapples manfully with it, and makes many judicious and instructive remarks. He has not, however, the supreme art of arranging what he has to say in its most natural order, and of getting right down to the fundamental principles involved. It would have been better to set forth separately in its completeness each of the competing theories, and to show the real differences of religious sentiment and religious doctrine as well as of political sentiment and view which existed between them. Nether does he sufficiently examine the mediæval conceptions out of which some at least of these sixteenth-century theories sprang. There is not, for instance, a single reference throughout the chapter to Marsilius of Padua. Even the bibliography appended to the chapter does not mention the 'Defensor Pacis' of that remarkable thinker, though it is perhaps the most striking political treatise of the Middle Ages. One wishes here, as so often in turning over the pages of this History, that Lord Acton could have lived to contribute to it, or that at least he had lived to write that 'History of Liberty' to which he had at one time intended to devote his powers, and which would have been a treasure of thought and knowledge for his successors.

Apropos of the excellent bibliographies which are attached to each of the chapters, and which naturally grow longer in each successive volume, as each comes nearer our own time, it deserves to be remarked that they would become much more useful if the leading or most valuable books upon each topic were indicated, even by a line or two. A very long list tends to defeat its object, because few indeed are the students who can read through all the books enumerated. Some of the original sources, and some of the modern treatises or detached articles, are much more valuable than others. To indicate these would greatly lighten the labors of the student who desires to turn the bibliography to account. There are books in these bibliographies which one who has read them will rate low. Let it be added that the workmanlike quality of the whole undertaking, so marked in the first two volumes, is thoroughly well maintained in this one. It is generally accurate; it is critical; it is clearly written; it is dispassionate. One does not ask one's self whether the writer of each particular chapter is a Catholic or a Protestant, and, if a Protestant, what is his particular theological position. The attitude of pure science is worthily maintained.

The century and a half which follows the beginning of the German and Swiss Reformation has, among other characteristics, three on which a perusal of this volume suggests a few passing words to be said. It is the epoch of European history (with the exception of the twenty-five years from 1791 to 1815) in which the fortunes of all the great European States are so closely linked together that the history of no one of them can be written without constant reference to the history of the others. There was, indeed, during this period a greater unity of Europe than there had been in those earlier days when the Pope and the Emperor claimed to be universal monarchs. The nations, so far from being united, were, indeed, engaged in almost constant wars with one another. But they were also engaged in civil wars, and these civil wars were all, ostensibly at least, wars due to the same disturbing element of religious discord. Each religious party in each country felt its prospects of success or defeat involved with the prospects of those who championed the same doctrines in every other State. Only Russia and, to a less degree, the lands north of the Baltic lay outside this principle of discord, which for a time seemed to be suspending national antagonisms, for it made the Protestants of Germany, France, Holland, Hungary, Bohemia, England, and Scotland the allies of all other Protestants, as, similarly, the Catholics in each of these countries, as well as in Spain, Italy and Poland, were leagued with all other Catholics. Sympathy in principles held to be vital was no doubt not the only motive at work, because the sovereigns of most States were governed as much, or more, by their own interests as by their religious prepossessions. If the two great Roman Catholic Powers, France and Spain, had cared to unite against England, they could have overthrown Elizabeth, and, with her, the Protestant cause everywhere, because Holland also must have succumbed. Fortunately, even Philip the Second, devoted as he was to his faith, had far too strong a jealousy of France to make a real alliance with her for any purpose. So, if Elizabeth had cared more heartily for Protestantism, she would have sent earlier and more effective help to the revolting Dutch. As for the German princes, some of the Catholics were ready to hire out their troops to the French Protestants, some of the Protestants to give like help to French Catholics. Yet the sympathies of the people went with the religion to which they belonged, and, in the main, it prescribed their line of action to the monarchs. After the

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Peace of Westphalia, religion sinks to a second place, and dynastic interests of sovereigns predominate, aided or modified by the interests of trade. There is no longer a bond uniting sections of one nation to sections of another; nor does any such bond appear till after the Napoleonic wars, when the principles of the Holy Alliance drew Russia, Prussia, and Austria together, and led them to repress revolutionary doctrines everywhere; when, later, sympathy for freedom makes England disposed to favor the national movement in Italy, when France displays her feeling for Poland, and when, in our own days, European peoples subscribe money for the benefit of the South African Dutch in their resistance to England.

The sixteenth century is an age marked more than most others by a group of remarkable female rulers. Besides Mary and Elizabeth of England and Mary of Scotland, Catherine de' Medici guides the policy of France for many years with Italian adroitness and tenacity, while first the aunt, then the sister, and then Margaret of Parma, the illegitimate daughter of Charles the Fifth, all showed remarkable gifts as regents of the Netherlands. In no subsequent generation have women figured so prominently in affairs of state, though there have been times when their secret influence has been potent. This may be an accident; but another feature of the period is no accident. The days of the Wars of Religion were marked by more frequent assassinations and attempts at assassination of monarchs and other conspicuous political figures than any century of the Middle Ages had been, or than any subsequent period has been down to our own time, when the phenomenon has again appeared. France takes the first place with the murders of two kings, Henry III. and Henry IV., and of two great Catholic leaders, Francis Duke of Guise, killed by a Huguenot, and Henry Duke of Guise, killed by Henry III., not to speak of that orgy of slaughter, the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. William the Silent's life was often threatened and twice attempted, the second time with success. In England there are incessant conspiracies to kill Elizabeth; there is the Gunpowder Plot, in which not only the King but the whole Parliament was to have perished; there are the murders of Buckingham and Overbury, and there are in Scotland, where manners were still more fierce, the murders of Cardinal Beaton, of Riccio, of Darnley, of the two regents, Murray and Lennox. (Many of the executions under Henry VIII. and his children were really murders done by law.)

These assassinations were in most cases perpetrated by the orders of kings or princes, and were usually approved by the opinion of the party in whose interest they were effected. To get rid by the knife or by poison of a formidable antagonist like Guise, or Murray, or William of Orange, was deemed a legitimate act of warfare. A Te Deum was sung at Rome on the receipt of the news of St. Bartholomew. This kind of feeling is now almost confined to the Turks, and indeed to the worse kind of Turks, with the present Sultan at their head. An event like the recent murder of the King and Queen of Servia horrifies Europe, though it is what might well have happened in the Scotland of Queen Mary. The explanation is to be found partly in the intensity of passion which religious strife excites, and partly in the belief that all means are justifiable where religious faith is in question. A modern parallel is afforded by the anarchist murders of our own days, such as those of President McKinley, of President Sadi Carnot, of the Empress Elizabeth of Austria, of King Humbert of Italy. In these cases men's brains are inflamed by a mad and unreasoning hatred, born of ideas which are held with the intensity of religious doctrines, and which render the assassin ready to sacrifice his own life, as did Balthasar Gérard and Francis Ravaillac when they killed William of Orange and Henry IV.

THE SIEGE OF PORT ARTHUR.

Port Arthur: Three Months with the Besiegers. Illustrated. By Frederic Villiers. Longmans, Green, & Co. 1905.

In view of the complaints of newspaper men who were offered a lesson in patience which they did not learn, and through whom the Japanese declined to publish their more intimate military operations while they were still inchoate, it is interesting to read this veteran artist-correspondent's valedictory in his diary of incidents observed with the Third Imperial Army of Japan. He says: "I never left any army in the field with greater regret, nor have I been treated with more consideration and kindness by all ranks, from privates to generals." Nothing could be plainer, and from such long experience in the ways of warring men there can be no more satisfactory testimony to the good sense and good temper of the new nation, so that the querulousness of the inexpert may be disregarded.

As history (although interspersed with much personal matter interesting only as illustrating a mode of life) this book contrasts with the tales of the mobile columns by describing the persistent and heroic siege operations which brought the Japanese character into new relief. When the capture of Nan-shan opened the way, Gen. Nogi's army swept down the peninsula, and the Russians were pushed back from outlying point to point until the assault of Taku-shan forced them into the stronghold. The reverse of this shan (hill) is as sheer as Gibraltar, and it rises 600 feet to a crest rugged with precipitous rocks. Its sloping base, intersected with trenches, runs in undulations to the plain. "After fighting incessantly from the afternoon of August 7 till early on the 9th [these dashing little soldiers] rushed the positions at four o'clock in the morning, only taking five minutes from the beginning of the slope to scale the crags to the crest, capturing four guns and hundreds of rounds of ammunition." The time seems incredible, but, whatever its length, the feat was accomplished. As this point of observation commanded all the besiegers' movements, its occupation was essential.

The wonderful achievements of Nan-shan and Taku-shan seem to have inspired the Japanese with the belief that no position was beyond their immediate seizure, and they must have kept in mind that, ten years previously, at a cost of less than 300 casualties, they had torn Port Arthur from 14,000 Chinese in a single fight that closed at midday. Hence their terrific efforts to carry the works by storm—efforts through which in six weeks they "lost nearly 30,000 men without having captured any position of great strategic advantage" (p. 124). Of these, 14,000 fell between the 18th and 26th of August (p. 35). On the land side the terrain was very rough, and Port Arthur was shielded by a semi-circle of works crowning the ten miles of crowded hills.

"All the permanent forts that top the hills in front of us, skirting the valley from sea to sea, have smaller redoubts wedged in between them, some fifty in all, and the majority of them connected by covered ways; the whole, apparently, forming a double line of impregnable works that, if held by a strong garrison, might, even on meagre rations, keep a besieging army at bay for months, and, if the men were well fed, for years. Behind these formidable lines, standing out in a yellow blaze of sunlight against the blue background of the waters, is the famous sea fortress of the Golden Mount" (p. 17).

At four in the morning of August 21 the Ban-u-san forts, near the centre of the lines, were attacked, and they changed masters only after twenty-eight hours of continuous and fearful fighting. Excepting that this feat was actually accomplished through unparalleled exertion and frightful losses, to carry them might fairly be pronounced impossible. But in this war human life means so little in comparison with a necessary end that "impossibilities" become ephemeral in duration and powerful forts inconstant in allegiance. There are vivid descriptions of captures and repulses, midnight actions, rushes at dawn, bloody engagements in broad day, of bombardment by enormous (11-inch) rifled mortars and other great guns throwing 500-pound projectiles, and of life in trenches so near the enemy that ordinary conversation draws fire. After repeated demonstration that even Japanese infantry could not live on the fire-swept open below the parapets, zigzags and parallels checkered the great natural glacis of those gun-crowned hills, and scientific approaches by the engineers replaced, or more strictly supported, the valorous attacks of the infantry and the perpetual pounding of the artillery. The siege settled down into industrious digging, continuous cannonading, the repulse of desperate sorties, and the dash of yet more desperate attacks. For months hardly an hour passed without some kind of fighting (p. 130), and one can well appreciate how finally any sound might startle the nerve-racked combatants.

Apart from the extreme audacity and fury of the warfare—desperation, for example, that left only seventeen survivors from a great regiment (Ouchi's)—a novel characteristic has been the artificial illumination of the field by the Russian searchlights and star bombs—great cones of vivid glare that bathed the whole terrain, and showers of softer light that fell over the advancing lines moving under cover of the night.

"It is 1 A. M., and still the fight rages furiously. Three of the nine searchlights that the Russians appear to possess are playing incessantly on this section of the battlefield, and star bombs or rockets are bursting continually, their incandescent petals spreading fan-like, and falling slowly to the ground. So brilliant are these lights that the moon, now nearing the horizon, is but a faint slip of silver in the sky. The colour of this night warfare is what Whistler would have revelled in. The deep purple of the mountain against the nocturnal blue, the pale lemon of the moon,

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the whitish rays of the searchlights, the warm, incandescent glow of the star bombs, the reddish spurt from the cannons' mouths, and the yellow flash from the exploding shell, all tempered to a mellowness by a thin haze of smoke, ever clinging to a hill-top and valley, make the scene the most weird and unique I have looked on during all the many wars I have witnessed. In the old campaigning days, both armies usually ceased hostilities at some period between sundown and sunrise; but here, at Port Arthur, for purposes of fighting the night is as the day" (p. 27).

Disregarding further illustration of its extreme gallantry, one asks how came this army to be so superbly tempered? It is notorious that recruits may be led to victory over ground where veterans fear to tread. Soldiers whose eyes have been opened may falter until they attain the calculated defiance of peril and precision of obedience that reward intelligent discipline. These Japanese were neither recruits nor veterans. They had passed into the reserves familiarized, under a general conscript law, with the more common military requirements, and in the field they soon must have seen windrows and hecatombs of the slain, deterrent to any but the stoutest hearts. The conviction forces itself upon the student that Japanese success has depended upon two prime factors. One is the merging of the individual's identity in that of the nation; a concentration in the man of action of both ancestors and those yet unborn. With them, even more than with other Orientals, the generation on earth connects itself with the past and the future; a visible link in a vital chain between the two eternities. Their dead have not been destroyed. They inspire the living and in turn largely depend upon the living for their own happiness; and, moreover, the qualities of the living are to be bestowed upon those not yet embodied. This, which also might well be considered in the propagation of religion, has a wider range than along a mere family line. Even the private not simply has before him the honor of his ancestors and the credit of posterity, but realizes that he is adding to the character of the nation as well. Napoleon's rhetoric at the battle of the Pyramids is living doctrine to the Japanese soldiers. Not merely forty disinterested centuries, but the termless and crowded past of Dai Nippon supplies the cloud of witnesses that are beneficiaries as well of the heroic deeds. There is, therefore, not a mere indifferent disregard of death, but an altruistic welcome of it as the portal to a higher life for the martyr and for his people. Along with the ingrained patriotism, which also may show itself in other ways, is a distinctly native martial spirit; so that the Emperor's call transforms the most tranquil man of peace into one eager for war.

The other factor is the Japanese genius for little things and the never-ceasing application of practical instruction. This is shown in the good sense with which military teaching is carried on. A newly arrived contingent is drilled in scaling a neighboring hill, dashing from cover to cover, finally with triumphant shouts to charge the imaginary foe. An officer of an "enlightened" nation forbade a captain to drill his command over wooded country in the similitude of actual war, because "the parade-ground was set apart for drilling." "In the camp, men are gathered in little groups round their officers, intently listening to lectures on the behavior of soldiers in the field, the way to preserve their health, and other little details. The men all seem to take the keenest interest in these talks, which occur daily in Gen. Nogi's camp" (p. 87). Is it possible that they supposed themselves following American precedent, and that United States troops, overflowing with zealous desire, imbibed similar instruction on the sands of Florida or under the groves of Chickamauga, in anticipation of yellow fever in Cuba or of typhoid at Camp Thomas? The author arranges for a personal supply of "the boiled water served to the troops" (p. 35). Has the United States, has any "civilized" State, issued boiled water in the field? Has it acted, not merely declaimed, against raw water in contaminated regions?

Fertile in resource and quick to adopt the newest instrumental aid, we believe the Japanese were the first to use the hyposcope in actual war in this campaign. Its arrangement of prisms enables an officer out of the direct line of vision to observe the effect of artillery fire and to lay the guns as required. Large detachments of literal grenadiers were improvised and the rarely used missile reinstated. Extemporized wooden mortars, wrapped and reinforced with strips of bamboo, light enough for two men to drag to the immediate vicinity of a trench, bewildered the defenders by dropping charges of guncotton among them preparatory to a bayonet attack (p. 135). The Filipinos, in their destitution and desperation, used wooden cannon of small calibre and light weight, bound with cordage and bursting after a few rounds—pathetic signs of poverty. But these extemporized Coehorns were ingenious devices, admirably adapted to the situation. As to the Japanase treatment of the horse, Mr. Villiers admits that the miniature horse-lines before Port Arthur may not fairly represent a large cavalry camp, but, as far as they went, notwithstanding his extensive campaigning, he had never seen them equalled. Their leafy shade was refreshing to enjoy; "and so cleanly were they kept that, though the heat was intense and the moisture arising from the wet ground considerable, there was not the slightest effluvium of any kind to offend" (p. 48). In connection with the attention paid them, he adds: "Being an animal myself, if I had the choice of what form I should like to be in before Port Arthur, for comfort, regular meals, cleanliness, and general kind treatment, I should say, 'Make me a horse.'" One other point: on the eve of a great assault the troops expecting to be engaged "are tidying themselves up and changing their linen, for the Jap soldier has a horror to be found dead in a state of uncleanliness"; which the author notes as a novel custom in his campaign experience.

These are simple illustrations of the ways of an uncommon people. There is no discussion of the siege from a soldier's point of view. It is simply the diary of an experienced observer, and is a curious medley of Chinese rural life in the midst of war which we entirely pass by, of various trivial personal happenings, and some account of spirit-stirring combats and of the uproar and confusion that follow the operations of death-dealing mechanisms. As becomes an artist, the illustrations are copious and graphic, and many if not all are evidently reproductions of the original sketches for the *Illustrated News*, bearing upon them notes to the engraver, thus: "Please keep exactly to shape of white smoke. They are special studies of bursting projectiles sketched during the attack on the forts and therefore realistic of modern warfare." All the thirty-odd full-page illustrations bear evidence of being equally true to life.

The Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay. Vols. I-III., 1778-1788. With Preface and Notes by Austin Dobson. The Macmillan Co. 1904-5.

This edition of Fanny Burney's famous 'Diary' is based on the seven volumes issued by Colburn in 1842-6, rearranged in six volumes by the present editors. The Introduction, by Mrs. Barrett, the diarist's niece, is retained; but her notes were in many cases out of date and have been revised with numerous additions by Mr. Dobson. His footnotes are often quite unnecessary to any intelligent reader of the text. The appendices are new, and consist of "unpublished letters, or extracts from other sources which were too lengthy to be included in the notes."

The 'Diary' opens with the publication of 'Evelina' in 1778, when Fanny Burney was twenty-six. Her father was a teacher of music, whose great personal charm had long given him the *entrée* into fashionable society where the ordinary music-master, even though he had written an admirable 'History of Music,' would have been completely ignored. As it was, Dr. Burney was one of the most popular men in London, and his little house in St. Martin's Street was visited by most of the distinguished men and women of the day. The Burneys belonged to the middle class, but talent of any kind was fashionable, and there is no evidence that they were ever snubbed. When Fanny Burney, with infinite misgiving and speechless confusion, allowed it to be revealed to a select few that 'Evelina' was hers, she was promptly carried off by Mrs. Thrale, the great lion-hunter of the day, who had long entertained Dr. Johnson as her domestic philosopher and was eager to secure for her Streatham salon this latest celebrity, at whose identity every one was guessing. London society at that time was led by "the Wits." Mrs. Delany, Mrs. Montagu, Mrs. Chapone, and their kind dominated the drawing-rooms of London and Bath, while Mrs. Thrale, the wealthy brewer's wife, could always gather a crowd of "tonnish" people who were only too flattered to be browbeaten by Dr. Johnson if they could but be seen publicly in his set. Johnson was ever ready to give away his heart to a young woman of intelligence, and all London envied her her intimacy at Streatham with this "ponderous *amoroso*"—if we may borrow a phrase of Mr. Henry James. Even the young bloods craved the distinction of dancing with "little Burney" at what they called "flash" or "flaming" parties. A most unresponsive and embarrassing partner they must have found her. Her silences, which became as famous as those of Æschylus, earned for her the nickname of the "Mute Angel." One who had got on the soft side of Dr. Johnson and had written 'Evelina' could not, of course, be stupid, and when Hannah More

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alluded to "the silence of intelligence" in a poem on "Attention," the compliment was at once fixed on Fanny Burney.

The Streatham party and their interests fill the first volume and half of the second. What is true of Fanny Burney's novels is true of her 'Diary': it is the minor characters that are the most amusing. We can all imagine for ourselves what it might be to sit down to dinner as she does in the natural course of things with Edmund Burke on one side, Sir Joshua Reynolds on the other, and Gibbon opposite. But think of going to tea with the Bowdlers, all unconscious that one's host was to be immortalized not by his 'Expurgated Family Shakspere,' then in vogue, but by being transformed, like Captain Boycott, into a verb. Among others then creeping silently into fame, Fanny Burney encountered Thomas Lawrence, whom she saw at his home, the Bear Inn, at Devizes, a boy of ten already known in the neighborhood for his wonderful drawings. Her brother married Sally Payne, of whom Fanny could not foretell that she was to furnish Lamb with the original of "Mrs. Battle." In those days, when it was fashionable to be "blue," there was an astonishing number of beautiful women in English society in whose list of charms a knowledge of Greek was placed second, if not first. Such was Sophy Streatfield, the belle of Tunbridge Wells, who, in addition to her Greek, had an extraordinary gift for tears. She used to be asked to cry in society as other people were asked to sing, and would cry smiling, like the water nymph in Theocritus with her April eyes.

In 1784 Mrs. Thrale married Piozzi the singer, and was cut by all her friends. Mrs. Delany, who counted with the "old Wits," now became Fanny's mentor. Mrs. Delany was adored by George III. and Queen Charlotte, and it was, no doubt, mainly due to her influence that they disregarded court precedents and in 1786 appointed Fanny Burney dresser to the Queen. She was now thirty-four. No one could have been less suited by nature for a life at court, and no one was ever less adaptable than Fanny Burney. For a woman who had been the pet of London society for eight years she was astonishingly slow at acquiring etiquette. Yet nearly all that the Georgian etiquette required was that you should not seem to exist in a royal presence unless requested by a royalty to speak or move, should scratch at a door instead of rapping, and leave the room when you were told you could go. Fanny Burney's awkwardness was partly due to her extreme short sight. It was court etiquette when you unexpectedly met the King or Queen to stand rooted to the spot, and, if convenient, to flatten yourself against the nearest wall. "Mrs. Burney," as she was officially called on her promotion, lived in a chronic state of nervous prostration at these encounters. The King and Queen were always genial and unbending with their suite, but there was a court spirit that could not be offended with impunity, and Fanny was constantly reminded by the odious Mrs. Schwellenberg, her chief among the Queen's attendants, that she was regarded as an interloper who must be taught her place. This German dragon, the Queen, and Mrs. Delany, fill the foreground of the third volume.

The pride of the Burney family in its new dignity was never shared by Fanny. She took life very hard and herself very seriously. She could always see the humor of another's situation, but could never face her own lightly. She shows herself in all these volumes an amiable prig, but still a prig. When she attended the first sittings of the trial of Warren Hastings in 1788 she snubbed Burke, who left his place to speak to her, because, being one of the court party, she regarded him as the cruel persecutor of one who, after all, was only her acquaintance, while Burke had long been her friend. She had little to describe that was as brilliant as this trial, for the home life of George III. was monotonous, not to say bourgeois, and of a respectability that strictly barred the "flaming" and the "flash." What makes this part of the 'Diary' entertaining is Mrs. Burney's lively descriptions of the trivial interests and difficulties of the ladies-in-waiting, their harmless sociabilities, their clothes, their relations with the equerries of the King, their squabbles and discussions when the whole suite met every evening at the tea-table of Mrs. Schwellenberg, all the little incidents connected with their frequent migrations to Kew and to town.

The full-page illustrations consist of portraits, views, and plans, and are well reproduced. There is an index to every volume, and a general index is promised at the close of the work.

Pathfinders of the West; Being the Story of the Adventures of the Men who Discovered the Great Northwest, Radisson, La Verendrye, Lewis and Clark. By Agnes C. Laut. With illustrations by Remington, Goodwin, Marchand, etc. The Macmillan Company. 1904. Pp. xxv., 380.

Miss Laut's 400 pages trace the careers of several preëminent American pathfinders to their ultimate goals. Radisson, Verendrye, with Lewis and Clark, are mentioned on the title-page. Two others of the elect few are there unnamed, though they each fill about as many pages as Verendrye or as Lewis and Clark combined. One of those unmentioned was Hearne, whose pilgrimage down the Coppermine in 1770 to Arctic salt water started that series of polar adventures which may wear out the world. The other of the unmentioned was Mackenzie, who first of all men crossed North America, and that twelve years before Lewis and Clark's grand traverse. The lack of these supreme names in the forefront, analogous to leaving Hamlet out of his namesake play, is the more noticeable because it is a typical negligence. All through the volume we desiderate something we ought to find but do not. Many a toothsome plum is plucked out of Radisson, but in the pile of sweets we miss that mortar of pudding which in the original showed their relations and hence significance, making them each to both lend and borrow light and sweetness.

The culmination of each pathfinder's endeavor made him also a pathbreaker and epoch maker. Radisson's discovery in the seventh decade of his century regarding that divide, or height of land, whence rivers flowed to Hudson Bay, cost France half her fur supremacy, and gave birth in 1670 to the Hudson Bay Company, the most longæval known, and which, after two centuries of record-breaking dividends, to-day lives with eye undimmed and natural force not abated. Mackenzie and Lewis, first overlanders to our ultimate sea, were fathers of international counter claims to that coast and country which to the world's wonder lasted a hundred years without a war.

For painting to the life her favorites, each a Columbus in his sphere, Miss Laut has many rare qualifications, and, thanks to a cardinal characteristic common to them each and all, she has naturally treated them all in the same book. As we have hinted at her weakness betrayed on her title-page, we are glad of the prima-facie illustration of her strength which greets us in the pictorial outside of her volume. The central field of the left cover we see filled with a nondescript figure which she declares to represent the form and pressure of a pathfinder's stockade. "Such a fort was a triangle, and, if on a river-side, built with its base at the water's edge, with gate there and log walls running up to the apex" (p. 114). Many a reader's comment is, "Preposterous! just like a lady's fortification, on the pattern of the blockhouses her pinafore boy builds on the nursery floor." But we read in Gass, who was the architect of Fort Mandan, in which Lewis and his men wintered: "We built huts in two rows, joined at one end in an angle, roofs rising shed-fashion from the inner side, so as to make the outer wall eighteen feet high," etc. This form of fort appeared as a cut in one of the earliest editions of Gass, and it has been copied in Thwaites's comprehensive edition now in press. In analogous cases Miss Laut, when she has kept in mind the classic shoemaker's last, is critic-proof. Indeed, her antecedents lent her special fitness for her task. Her birth and breeding were not only amid scenes which her heroes trod, but where pristine conditions are not much changed. Her travels have been along Labrador, in Hudson Bay, or inland in Keewatin, still further from beaten paths. She has known life in bark boats on rivers where she has learned how, before horses were known, the adventurers she writes of forced their way. She has also met in the flesh as well as in their writings the best new Dominion specialists as to research in her department. Her style, if not without words unfound in our lexicons, has justification from new things —or it is an attractive brogue or Canadese which banishes dulness, though, like her rivers, it may bubble at times with a fatal facility.

The pathfinders, building wiser than they knew, while all seeking fur as a chief end, sowed seeds which have sprung up in continental railways, imperial companies, and even empires. Radisson, starting on his crowning quest into the vast unknown, led thirty-two Frenchmen and six hundred wild men. No sooner had the French smarted in the first hedge of thorns than they all, except his brother, deserted him. Then he approved himself a leader born, if not heaven-born. Standing in the Indian council, which was becoming as faithless as the French had proved, he swayed it as the leaves of a tree are moved by wind—somewhat by memories, but mostly by shouldering his pack and starting, self-centred, all alone on a forward march. *Qui sibi fidit dux regit examen.* Not one of the Indian legion failed to follow in his trail, and all served him as Ariels or Calibans did the monocratic Prospero. Contemplating an analogous magnetism, or whatever we call

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it, in all her pathfinders, no wonder that when Miss Laut relates their legendary miracles, her narrative is permeated with unconscious exaggerations and imaginations, so that her book may be fitly classed among historical novels. To all who cannot take in hand Radisson's own book, hitherto printed only in a single Society edition, we commend Miss Laut's dilution; but let those who can, forsake the stream for its fountainhead.

Old English Furniture. By Frederick Fenn and B. Wyllie. London: George Newnes; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. x., 91.

This book is the first of a series, of which the general title is announced as the "Newnes Library of Applied Arts." It is a gratifying promise which is made to the public, for the signs are plain that branches of decorative art not hitherto sufficiently popular to deserve volumes devoted each to a single branch, will now receive notice. English furniture, to be sure, is the subject of many a book, but there is announced a volume on "Sheffield Plate"; and who would have dared, ten years ago, to propose that as a subject for a volume? So, a volume on French Pottery is announced; and apparently there is no adequate treatment of the beautiful eighteenth-century faïence anywhere in English, except in the very recent work of M. L. Solon —a book of three times the cost of one of the volumes we are discussing.

As to the present volume, it seems to follow very nearly the same historical course as the stately quarto on English Furniture by Mr. MacQuoid, of which there has been preliminary discussion in these columns. As in that costly book, the periods are named in accordance with the materials in favor—oak, walnut, and mahogany—so here chapter ii. is devoted to "Oak Furniture," chapter iii. deals with "The Walnut Wood Period," chapter iv. with "The Introduction of Mahogany," chapter v. with "Inlaid Mahogany and Satinwood." The sixth chapter is entitled "Painted Furniture," and one turns to it with the hope of finding there some discussion of the early mediæval work, of that epoch of design when form was simple and color was all. In this the reader will be disappointed. The painted furniture alluded to is of Angelica Kauffmann's time, and the chapter is only a page and a half long. Finally, chapter vii. deals with "Chairs and Sofas," they being reserved for discussion apart from the cabinets and cupboards, chests and tables, because of a very natural and very praiseworthy feeling. The commodious and agreeable seats of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are hardly to be discussed on the same lines as the more monumental pieces which have no upholstery, no compulsory reduction to unchangeable dimensions, no limitation of their solid parts to such slender bars and slats.

What we like especially about the text is its reserve, and quiet tone, and plain statement of the impossibility of fixing dates very closely. Again, one finds (pp. 37, 38) a very sagacious criticism of Chippendale, and a comparison of his work with that of the Stuart period. The author (in this case, Mr. Frederick Fenn) desires to remove the absurd impression which he thinks is prevalent, that furniture-making of good taste began with Chippendale. Mr. Fenn has dealt with walnut and mahogany, and the periods which they represent, and Mr. Wyllie with oak, inlaid and painted furniture, and chairs and sofas; but the introduction—chapter i., which is a general essay on making and buying fine furniture —is by Mr. Fenn, and it rather seems as if he were the deviser of the book.

It does not appear, however, who is responsible for the illustrations. These are ninety-four in number, all half-tone prints, but on separate sheets of coated paper with white backs. The fashion of hoisting the picture itself as high as possible on the page has at least the advantage of leaving plenty of room for a five-line legend. By an unusual connection of ideas, the word "hutch" is applied to a kneading-tray for bread, as shown in plate xvii. This is the French *pétrin* of the eighteenth century exactly, and it is the only specimen of English make that the present writer has heard of; but a kneading-tray is a well-known thing, and the term "hutch" applied to it, though to be found in the Century Dictionary, is assuredly unusual. Let it be accepted as a collector's name for this rare piece of household decorative art.

With the Pilgrims to Mecca. John Lane.

This is a very entertaining illustrated book. The main authorship is left decidedly obscure by being assigned to a certain Hadji Khan, M.R.A.S., all the parts of which name are titles simply. Nor is there much further illumination when he calls himself "Hadji Raz," which means "Mystery Hadji." Plain, however, it is that he is a Shi'ite Muslim, who had been educated in England, and to whom the East was, to a great extent, as new as to an Englishman. Persian is, evidently, his Oriental tongue, and very weird work he makes of Arabic liturgics. In an incautious moment he describes himself as "an agnostic who would like to know," and he evidently went through the ritual in a more or less sportive frame of mind. Only the interior of the Ka'ba struck a hush of awe upon him, and, with that, ventilation may have had a great deal to do. Even the sermon at Arafat, which so impressed Burton, had no emotional effect upon him.

Apart from entertainment, the interest of this book must lie in its revealing broadly the state of mind of such "enlightened" Muslims. How shall a stiffly traditional ritual, full of the crudest fetishism, impress a philosophic doubter? is the problem. The present doubter took his solidly, and made no attempt to ease the burden by symbolism or allegory. Apparently he said to his soul, "I will go through the whole thing and see how it affects me." Apart from the Ka'ba, where he seems to have half fainted, it evidently did not affect him much. Of interest, too, is his quite artistic use of a skeptical and very unregenerate master of ceremonies in order to bring out the high lights of sarcastic comment.

It is unfortunate that little reliance can be put on our author's accuracy. Otherwise, the account of the distinctively Persian and Shi'ite "use" in the liturgy would have much value. Up till now, we have nothing of the kind. With the pictures of society and trade in Mecca it is different; these are most lively in color and give every appearance of truth. Indeed, the last chapters, on the Meccan bazaars and the tales told by the Talisman-Monger and by the aforementioned master of ceremonies, are the most entertaining part of the book. How much there and elsewhere is due to Mr. Wilfrid Sparroy, the collaborator with the Hadji, is left obscure. Fifty pages at the beginning are plainly his, but how extensive were the "notes" (p. 299) of the pilgrim we are not told. To be divided between them, then, is the burden of most scandalous proof-reading, and of an inserted slip correcting some of the errata, which are blunders of the worst. Apparently a more competent Orientalist read the sheets very hastily at the last moment.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Henry L. Problems of the Panama Canal. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Adler, Elkan Nathan. Jews in Many Lands. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Aristotle's Politics. Translated by Benjamin Jowett. Henry Frowde.
Arnold's Aprilwetter. Edited by Laurence Fossler. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Atkinson, George Francis. A College Text-Book of Botany. Henry Holt & Co. $2 net.
Atwood, Elizabeth F. A Practical Speller. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Bahama Islands, The. Edited by George B. Shattuck. Macmillan Co. $10 net.
Berlin-Zossen Electric Railway Tests of 1903. McGraw Publishing Co. $3.
Blondolt, R. "N" Rays. Longmans. $1.20 net.
Burton-Brown, E. Recent Excavations in the Roman Forum, 1898-1905. Imported by Scribners. 75 cents net.
Carson, Thomas G. Man's Responsibility. Putnams. $1 net.
Casual Essays of the "Sun." Robert Grier Cook. $1.50.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. Rose of the World. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Channing, Edward. A History of the United States. Vol. I. Macmillan Co.
Cleveland, Frederick A. The Bank and the Treasury. Longmans. $1.80 net.
Cyr, Ellan M. The Dramatic First Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Dandelle, De la. Une Haine à Bord. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Dodge, Julia Elizabeth. Sant' Alessio. Putnams.
Duncan, Robert Kennedy. The New Knowledge. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2 net.
Eccles, R. G. Food Preservatives, their Advantages and Proper Use. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Fairlie, John A. The National Administration of the United States of America. Macmillan Co. $2.50 net.
Foucher, A. Etude sur l'Iconographie Bouddhique de l'Inde. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Fox, John, jr. Following the Sun-Flag. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Gans, Richard. Einführung in die Vektoranalysis. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Gardner, Percy. A Grammar of Greek Art. Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.
Gissing, George. By the Ionian Sea. Imported by Scribners. $1.75 net.
Henson, H. Hensley. Moral Discipline in the Christian Church. Longmans. $1.50 net.
Herreros, Manuel Bretón de los. Quién es Ella? American Book Co.
History of All Nations. By Charles M. Andrews and others. Vols. VI. and VII. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co
Hollis, A. C. The Masai, their Language and Folklore. Henry Frowde. 14s. net.
Hubbard, Arthur John and George. Neolithic Dew-Ponds and Cattle-Ways. Longmans. $1.25 net.
Humières, Robert d'. Through Isle and Empire. Translated by Alexander T. DeMattos. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.40 net.
Kendrick, A. F. English Embroidery. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
King, Charles. The Medal of Honor. The Hobart Co.
Lamb, Charles and Mary. Letters. Edited by E. V. Lucas. Vols. VI. and VII. Putnams. $2.25 each.
Lang, Andrew. Adventures among Books. Longmans.
Lewis and Clark Expedition. Original Journals. Edited by R. G. Thwaites. Vol. IV. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Library of Literary Criticism of English and American Authors. Edited by Charles W. Moulton. 8 vols. Buffalo: Moulton Pub. Co. $5 per volume.
Locke, William. The Morals of Marcus Ordeyne. John Lane. $1.50.
Loeb, Jaques. Studies in General Physiology. Vol. XV., Parts I. and II. University of Chicago Press. $7.50 net.
London, Jack. War of the Classes. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
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